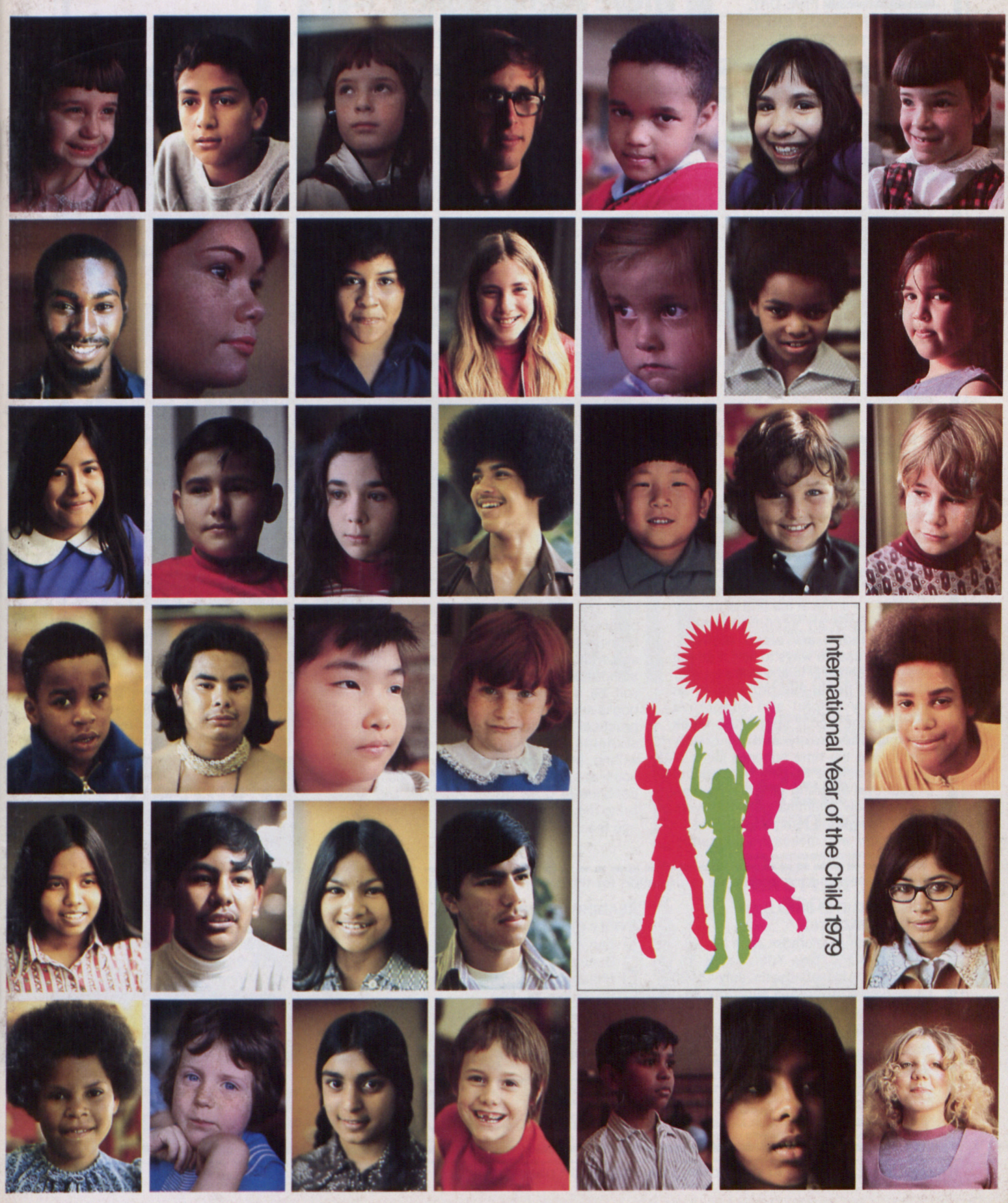
TODAY'S EDUCATION

The Journal of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

February/March 1979



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In This Issue

You'll see this logo many times during 1979—the International Year of the Child. It depicts two embracing figures circled by the United Nations laurel leaves, and it symbolizes the relationship between adult and child.

In proclaiming IYC, the UN General Assembly asked the world to "think children"—to work to improve the welfare of children around the world. To date, hundreds of national organizations, including the NEA, have planned IYC activities.

Our IYC cover presents the faces of today's children—children of every color, nationality, and age level. These wonderful faces form a background for the official IYC poster of children leaping up toward the sun.

In the IYC special feature in this issue, Marian Wright Edelman, director of the Children's Defense Fund and member of the IYC National Commission, surveys some of the world's social deficit and our own. What are the statistics concerning education, health, income, food and water, homelessness?

The fact is that even in this country many families need various kinds of help in trying to raise their children well. "If we think education, health care, and family support are expensive, let us watch the costs of ignorance, untreated illnesses, and family breakup."

An interview with Jean Young, chairperson of the IYC National Commission, is next in the feature. Ms. Young tells of developing goals in eight different areas—child nurturing, education, health and nutrition, juvenile justice, impact of alienation and discrimination, individual development, international concerns, and the impact of media. Fact sheets have been developed on each of these topics.

"We see this one short year as an opportunity to begin a process of developing even more awareness about the needs of children. Our final document will describe what we have done, what we feel is being accomplished, and what we see in the future. We certainly don't intend the effort to end in 1979."

"Today's Childhood—a Unique Condition" is the title of an article by sociologist Sarane Spence Boocock. She discusses how the status and treatment of American children have been affected by changes in their relation to the rest of society.

"Today's young people are cut off from the larger society, especially from contribution to the productive life of the community. Ironically, too, as we become more aware of the needs of the young, adults become less interested in spending time, money, and other resources on them. How can the young be better integrated into the larger society?"

The last article in the IYC feature tells how the Pennsylvania State Education Association is working to help assure children the rights set forth in the UN's Declaration of the Rights of the Child. Nancy Noonan, PSEA vice-president, declares that "this year is the time to demonstrate that teachers organizations are an aggressive force on behalf of children and their rights."

"Let's Get Together on Educational Research" by Patricia Albjerg Graham, director of the National Institute of Education, is the lead article in this issue. She asks: Why has educational research been the favorite whipping boy of both the academic community and the public? And she replies: 1. We have expected too much from education, and we have researched accordingly. 2. Our research methods have been limited. 3. We have not selected significant topics for research.

"Despite my criticisms of educational research, my judgment of its health and future is highly optimistic. We can change the kinds of topics we pursue and the range of methodologies we use. But we also need a more balanced set of ways to involve the field of researchers and practitioners in our programs."

"Teaching About the Holocaust" by Roselle Chartock, social studies teacher, tells about the first long-term unit on the Holocaust for high school students in the United States. It is an eight-week unit required at Monument Mountain Regional High School, Great Barrington, Massachusetts, for all ninth graders.

The author discusses many of the stumbling blocks encountered in teaching this unit. She also refers to many teaching materials useful in teaching such a course.

Our teacher interviewee in this issue is Sharon Villines, a mentor—a supervisor of individualized study programs—at Empire State College of the State University of New York in Albany. Previous interviewees this year have been an elementary and a secondary teacher.

A many-faceted individual, Sharon tells of working with individual students of various ages under a contract system and planning tailor-made independent-study college programs for them. She is also active in politics, particularly on behalf of women's rights, attends class at Union Theological Seminary once a week, is active in the New York Educators Association (an NEA affiliate), and continues to practice as an artist in the Albany area. You'll be interested in reading about this unusual college teacher "with added dimensions."

A two-article mini-feature on teacher retirement includes "Ma Haynes of Old Saybrook" by education consultant and writer Ben Brodinsky and "Looking Forward to Retirement" by Byron Spice of NEA Research.

Author Brodinsky tells the story of beloved Ma Haynes, who refused to retire. To the delight of everyone, she told the board and the superintendent that she intended to contest the state retirement regulations and keep on teaching. She and her colleagues won the day.

On the other hand, the companion article by Byron Spice assumes that you are looking forward to retirement, and it spells out in some detail how retirement systems, including social security, can help you.

These, then, are some of the highlights of this issue, which ranges from the concerns about improving the lot of children through IYC to the concerns of older teachers facing retirement. Have we touched on matters of interest to you? Please let us know.

—WAG.

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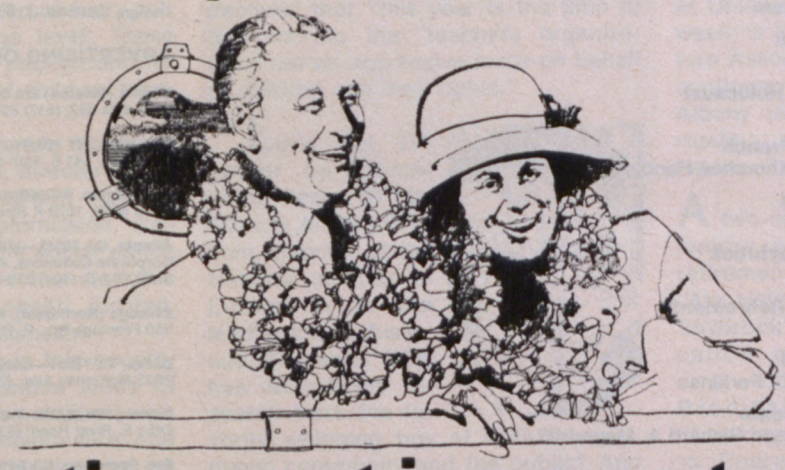

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Editorial

The NEA in Higher Education

By JOHN RYOR
President, NEA.

The past two years have been very successful ones for the NEA in higher education. Since the beginning of 1977, our affiliates have won the right to bargain for 3,700 faculty members at the University of Massachusetts and 10 Massachusetts state colleges; 1,000 faculty members at the University of Maine; 1,200 faculty members at the University of South Dakota and eight other public institutions in that state; and some 12,000 faculty members in 25 California community college districts.

NEA and its state- and campus-level affiliates have also—

- Achieved a law extending collective bargaining rights to some 90,000 faculty and staff members in California's public universities and colleges.
- Kept tenured faculty members from being permanently excluded from the new federal law raising the mandatory retirement age in the United States to 70.
- Won the first bargaining election ever held in an Arizona institution of higher education.
- Pushed through the Maryland legislature a special exception bill permitting collective bargaining at one particular college—legislation which may eventually open the door to faculty bargaining throughout the state.
- Affiliated a 1,500-member independent community college faculty association in New York State.

Our college and university chapters around the country have negotiated a number of outstanding contracts. For example, the fourth master agreement at Central Michigan University contains landmark language guaranteeing final and binding faculty authority over reappointment, promotion, and tenure decisions. These and other recent achievements make me highly optimistic about the future.

The specific circumstances that have led more than 50,000 faculty members on 250 campuses in 25 states to choose NEA representation in collective bargaining during the past 10 years vary. I believe, however, that these faculty members have been influenced by three common factors:

- A growing disillusionment about the usefulness of long-cherished "collegial" mechanisms for academic governance in the face of management's heavy-handed usurpation and centralization of power.
- A willingness to try a new mechanism—collective bargaining—which shows promise of restoring the faculty's rightful voice in academic and personnel decisions that affect their destinies and those of their institutions.
- A refusal to let snobbery or superficial, outdated perceptions of the images of various organizations stand in the way of choosing the one national organization with the power, the resources, and the ability to deliver—at the bargaining table, in the courts, and in the legislatures.

I feel most college professors now are about where elementary and secondary teachers were 15 years ago in terms of organizational awareness. The latest opinion surveys indicate 75 percent of the professoriate would vote for collective bargaining if given an opportunity to do so. But a question I often hear from professors who recognize the need to organize collectively is, "Why can't we remain independent? Why do we need to affiliate with a state and national organization?"

My answer is that collective bargaining and contract enforcement in higher education are complex and time-consuming processes. Confronted with the sophisticated legal and labor relations expertise most college and university administrators are in a position to hire, an independent faculty organization relying on the volunteer services of full-time teaching or research faculty members finds itself at a distinct disadvantage. Without raising dues to prohibitively high levels, it cannot afford to employ an attorney or other professional to do the extensive research, budget analysis, and other behind-the-scenes work necessary to represent faculty interests effectively.

Collective bargaining in public higher education does not occur in a vacuum. Negotiated settlements won at the table must ultimately survive legislative funding processes. And whether we like it or not, legislators understand and respond to political power—a commodity which an independent faculty organization, representing a very small group of constituents and lobbying on an occasional basis, clearly lacks. Even if it could afford to hire the most persuasive professional lobbyist in the state to argue its case, that lobbyist would still be ineffective in comparison to a well-established, statewide organization of thousands of politically active constituents to whom legislators from each district know they must answer back home. In nearly every legislature in the country, that organization is the NEA state affiliate.

For college faculties, affiliation with the NEA network at the state and national levels also means access to all the other resources that the world's largest association of professionals—with a total budget of $220 million and a nationwide staff of more than 5,000—can provide, including highly sophisticated, computerized research studies; a $2 million legal defense fund; and an unmatched bank of experience in public sector collective bargaining and the strategies of advocacy.

While retaining complete control over its own decisions and policies, the local faculty organization that joins the NEA network has at its disposal a full range of supportive services to help it meet the goals it sets. The campus affiliate, however small, and each of its members become able to draw on the power and services made possible by the pooling of resources. This, I believe, is the essence of collective action. □

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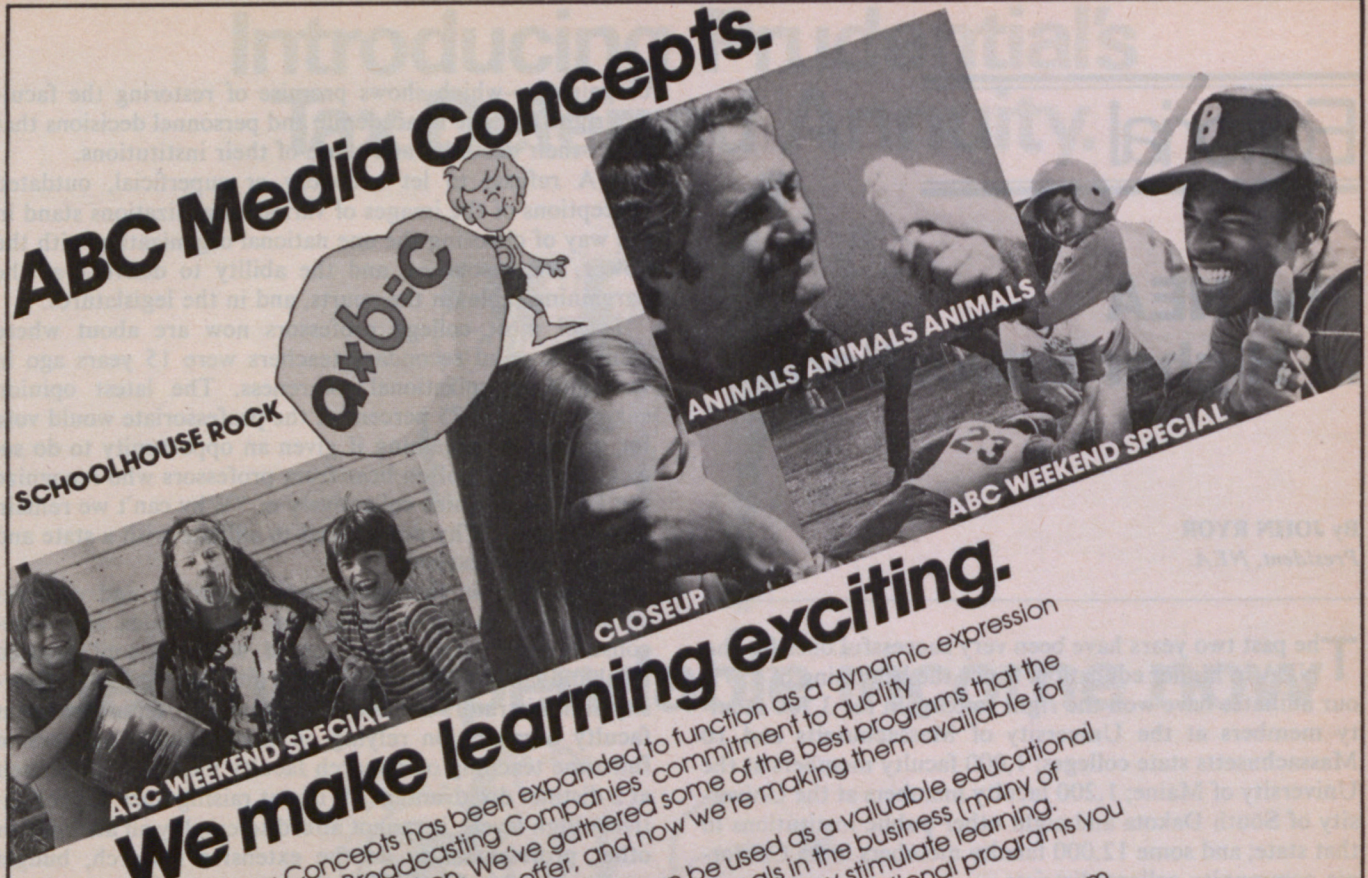

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Trends

The information and ideas in "Trends" are drawn from a variety of sources, which are indicated in the individual items.

Teacher Surplus Persists Despite Some Shortages

Although the number of school-age children is expected to increase in the late 1980's, the chances of a general teacher shortage are slight unless teaching as a career continues to become less attractive, says NEA Research. Localized shortages of teachers of math, some sciences, and industrial arts have occurred because people qualified to teach these subjects are likely to find some other kind of attractive employment. Some localities with the least attractive salaries and working conditions have had broader shortages.

NEA Research estimates that now, as for the past 6 years, two qualified teacher education graduates are seeking employment for every teaching vacancy. The answer to the spot shortages is to make the teaching jobs more attractive.

Will Basics Crowd Out Science?

Teachers are emphasizing basic skills in reading and arithmetic at the expense of the traditional science curriculum. So say researchers from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign after a study, funded by the National Science Foundation, of 11 U.S. school districts.

According to the study, most teachers feel the most pressing needs are to teach simpler and more general skills and vocabulary, to prepare students for future courses and responsibilities, and to develop their sense of responsibility and adherence to the work ethic.

In science, the teachers studied are gearing their courses more toward the basics and less toward personal experience, scientific inquiry, or the complex scientific ideas and problems of the day.

Some School Buildings Contain the Carcinogen Asbestos

Health experts are concerned that as many as 1,000 schools may be among buildings built in the 1950's and 1960's that contain hazardous amounts of fireproofing and soundproofing materials made with the carcinogen asbestos. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) outlawed use of such materials in 1973.

Students and school staff members are among those who risk cancer because they must spend time in such buildings. Researchers say prolonged exposure to asbestos increases the risk of cancer in smokers beyond the sum of the separate risks of smoking and asbestos exposure.

The Environmental Defense Fund is pressing the EPA to enforce a provision of the Toxic Substances Control Act that holds companies liable for hazards that their products create. In this instance, companies would be required to seal over or remove the asbestos.

Teachers Report Censorship Increase in Schools

Censorship of books, school newspapers, and other curriculum materials has increased since 1966, according to the Committee Against Censorship of the National Council of Teachers of English. Of 630 secondary school teachers who returned the Committee's 1978 questionnaire, 30 percent reported pressure for book censorship. A similar survey in 1966 had found pressure on 20 percent of teachers.

Parents made 48 percent of the complaints in 1966, 78 percent in 1978. In a third of the cases reported, the objections caused material to be removed from the library and from recommended reading lists.

UN University Sponsors Research in 50 Countries

The United Nations University, a network of research and advanced training operations, now involves 60 institutions in 50 countries, including the United States, says the American Council for the UN University.

The University has no campus, students, or professors. Individual schools, research institutions, and universities carry out its work, and its planning and coordinating headquarters is in Tokyo.

Current projects are designed to help find solutions to problems in such fields as use and management of natural resources, world hunger, and human and social development. Another aim of the University is to strengthen research and advanced training in developing countries.

U.S. Young Adults Have Opinions, Slight Information, on Energy

U.S. adults aged 26 to 35 lack the knowledge to make informed decisions on energy issues, according to the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). The average proportion of correct responses to 50 key energy knowledge questions is 49 percent.

Young adults believe energy problems are very serious, however, and have strong feelings about the necessity of energy conservation, the environmental hazards associated with some alternative energy sources, and the trade-offs to consider as alternative sources are developed.

Boyer Will Head Carnegie Foundation

The U.S. Office of Education has announced that Commissioner of Education Ernest Boyer will leave his post in January 1980 to become president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. Boyer had been chancellor of the State University of New York before becoming Commissioner in April 1977.

President Carter Names NEA Leader to National Commission

President Carter has named Consuelo Nieto, a member of NEA's Committee on minority affairs and minority representative to NEA's Higher Education Council, to the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies. Dr. Nieto is assistant professor of education at California State University at Long Beach.

The Commission is to report to the President on ways to direct public attention to the importance of foreign language and international studies in improving communications and understanding with other nations.

Most U.S. Americans Read Books

Among respondents to a recent survey, 55 percent of those over 16 years old had read a book in the preceding six months. Of these, 45 percent had read more than 10 books during that time. The survey, conducted by Yankelovich, Skelly, and White, Inc., for the Book Industry Study Group, showed that 39 percent of the population read newspapers and magazines only, and six percent read nothing.

Those who read books spend about

14 hours a week reading and 15 hours watching TV, the study found.

WCOTP President Undergoes Trial for Strike Activity

Motofumi Makieda, President of the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP) and of the Japan Teachers Union (JTU), has been on trial since 1974 for instigating a 24-hour teachers' strike. After the strike took place in April 1974, police searched the homes of Mr. Makieda and many JTU members.

Since then, Mr. Makieda has spent 37 days in the courtroom of the Criminal Division of the Tokyo District Court. He is charged with breaking the Public Service Law by instigating the strike.

WCOTP has protested to the Japanese authorities about their treatment of JTU officials. Its representatives have testified concerning teachers' right to strike at Mr. Makieda's trial and before hearings of the International Labor Office.

U.S. Students Tested in Social Studies

Nine-year-olds showed little change in performance on social studies knowledge, skills, and attitudes tests between 1972 and 1976, according to a study by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. The study report, *Changes in Social Studies Performance, 1972-76,* says that the performance of 13-year-olds declined slightly and that of 17-year-olds dropped 3 percentage points.

Among Blacks, however, the performance of nine-year-olds improved and that of 13-year-olds did not decline. Slightly fewer teenagers than in 1972 supported constitutional freedoms and expressed respect for others.

Travel Study in China Is Part of NEA Observance of the International Year of the Child

NEA's Travel Service is planning to offer a professional growth opportunity for the International Year of the Child. From July 16 through 31, a group of NEA members will travel to four mainland China cities to study children, education, and families.

Academic and in-service credit will be available. Interested people should send inquiries, letters of interest to accompany visa applications, and a $200 deposit immediately to NEA Travel Service, Summer China Program, Room 402E, 1201 16th St., N.W. Washington, DC 20036.

World Population Growth Slows

For the first time in three centuries, the growth rate of the world's population is undergoing a sustained reduction, according to estimates of the U.S. Census Bureau. Consensus is growing, says the *New York Times,* that the population explosion that began in the seventeenth century has passed its peak.

The world's population is already so large, however, that even at the reduced rates it will continue to grow by about 80 million people a year.

Metric Week Comes May 7-11

National Metric Week, May 7 through 11, is being sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) and is endorsed by NEA and the U.S. Metric Board. A list of community awareness activities for the Week is available from NCTM, 1906 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091.

NEA and Earthwatch Cosponsor Expeditions

A special program coordinated by the NEA International Institute will place NEA members in field research expeditions all over the world this year. Assignments are available in animal behavior, anthropology, archaeology, botany, ecology, geology, history, marine sciences, ornithology, and zoology. Optional academic credit is available.

Costs for the two- to three-week projects range from $500 to $1,500.

For a 48-page booklet describing the projects, write NEA/EARTHWATCH, 10 Juniper Road, Box 127, Belmont, MA 02178.

Freedom Hall Campaign Honors Martin Luther King, Jr.

NEA members through their local associations are invited to participate in the campaign to build Freedom Hall at the Martin Luther King, Jr., Center for Social Change in Atlanta. The Freedom Hall complex will complete the Center's 10-year building program for a living, working memorial to Dr. King.

Freedom Hall's two wings will contain an international conference center, a reference library, an archives, an exhibit hall, secretariats for the Institute on Nonviolence and the Institute for Policy Research, and staff offices for the Scholars Internship Program.

NEA's participation aims not only to raise funds—if possible, enough to donate a specific seminar room—but to increase public awareness of Dr. King's ideals.

For further information, see the March issue of the *NEA Reporter.*

U.S. Infant Mortality Rate Drops

The U.S. infant mortality rate for the 12-month period ending in August 1978 was 13.7 per 1,000 live births, the first time a year's rate has been lower than 14. The rate was 14.4 in the 12 months ending in August 1977. Sweden has the world's lowest rate—8.0 per 1,000.

The figures for the United States are compiled by HEW's National Center for Health Statistics.

Women and Minority Men Make Uneven Progress in Professions

Women and minority men are moving rapidly to get the education required for professional careers, according to *Professional Women and Minorities,* a reference book of the independent Scientific Manpower Commission. Women, for example, have quadrupled their share of bachelor's degrees in engineering since 1970 and tripled their share of master's degrees in business and management since 1971.

Progress does not mean equality, however. Although minorities officially constitute 17.7 percent of the U.S. population, their share of bachelor's degrees in 1975-76 was 9.8 percent and their share of Ph.D.'s was 7 percent. Hispanics, First Americans, and Blacks combined earned only 3 percent of the science and engineering doctorates awarded from 1973 through 1975; women earned 18 percent.

Opportunities for employment and advancement, furthermore, particularly for women, have not kept up with increasing preparation. Except for beginning engineers and industrial chemists, women are paid less than men with comparable education and experience at every age and degree level, in every field, and with every type of employer. Their unemployment rates are two to five times higher than those of men.

We're looking for people to write children's books

Writing for children is the perfect way to take up writing, says the author of 53 children's books. Your ideas come right out of your own experience. And while it's still a challenge, it's probably the straightest possible line between you and publication – if you're qualified to seek the success this rewarding field offers.

By Alvin Tresselt, Dean of Faculty

If you want to write and get published, I can't think of a better way to do it than writing books and stories for children and teenagers. Ideas flow naturally right out of your own life. While it's still a challenge, the odds of getting that first unforgettable check from a juvenile publisher are better than they are from just about any other kind of publisher I know.

Later on, you may get other checks from other publishers. But right now, the object is to begin — to break into print — to learn the feeling of writing and selling your work and seeing your name in type. After that, you can decide if you want your writing to take another direction.

But after 30 years of editing, publishing, and teaching (and 53 books) I can tell you this: you'll go a long way before you find anything as rewarding as writing for young readers.

Your words will never sound as sweet as they do from the lips of a child reading your books and stories. And the joy of creating books and stories that young people 'really dig' is an experience you'll never have anywhere else. (In this age of boob tube illiteracy, convenient morality, and plastic values, *do you know of a more important audience?)*

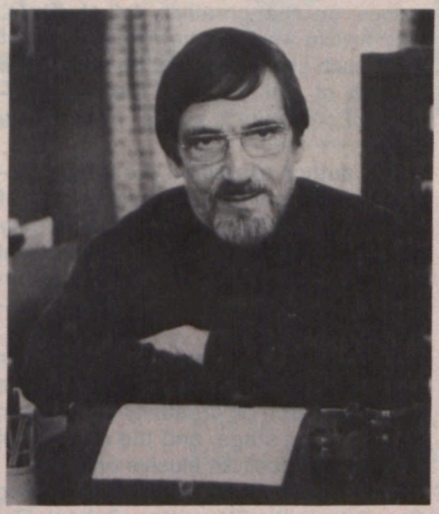
But, that's not all. The financial rewards go far beyond most people's expectations because there's a surprisingly big market out there for writers who are trained to crack it. More than 130 million young people's books are purchased each year. Between 2,000 and 2,500 new titles appear annually and new authors account for as many as half of them.

There are also 250 monthly magazines looking for material for young readers. You can imagine how much writing it takes just to keep them going!

'Am I really qualified?'

Yet two big questions bedevil nearly every would-be writer: "Am I really qualified?" and "How can I get started?"

This is our definition of a "qualified person": It's someone with an aptitude for writing who can take constructive criticism, learn from it, and turn it into a professional performance. That's the only kind of person we're looking for. The reasons are simple: our reputation is built on success, and if prospective students don't have the earmarks of success, we probably can't help them. And we tell them so. It's only fair to both of us.



Alvin Tresselt was Vice President and Executive Editor of Parents' Magazine Press, the first editor of *Humpty Dumpty's Magazine for Children*, and has served on the board of the Author's Guild. His 53 books for young readers have sold over two million copies.

To help us spot potential authors, we've developed a revealing test for writing aptitude. It's free, and we don't charge for our evaluation. But no one gets into the Institute without passing it. Those who pass and enroll receive our promise: You will complete at least one manuscript ready to submit to a publisher by the time you finish the Course.

When we teach, you learn

I've learned a lot about writing for children and I love it. Now I'm passing my knowledge on to my students so they can profit from it. When I'm not writing my own children's books I spend my time at The Institute of Children's Literature, a workshop for writers that does only one thing and does it better than any other school or college or university of its kind: It trains qualified people to write for the young reader.

This is the way I work with my students, and my fellow instructors — all of whom are experienced writers or editors — work more or less the same way.

When you're ready — at your own time and your own pace — you send your assignment to me and I read it and reread it to get everything out of it you've put into it. Then I edit your assignment with a red pencil just the way a publishing house editor would — if he had the time. I return it along with a detailed letter explaining my comments. I tell you what your strong points are, what your weaknesses are, and just what you can do to improve. It's a matter of push and pull. You push and I pull and between us both, you learn to write.

The proof of the pudding

This method really works. I wouldn't spend five minutes at it if it didn't. The proof of the pudding is that many of our students break into print even before they finish the Course.

Kathleen Huber, N.Y., N.Y., writes: "Regarding my sale to *Highlights for Children* for $125, it started out as an assignment for the Institute, and *Highlights* was only the second magazine I had sent it to. Certainly your Course made this sale possible. It may be the best investment I ever made."

A.M. Hummel, Danville, Pa., writes "When *Highlights for Children* accepted my short story — Assignment #8 in the Course, and sent me a $65 check, I could hardly believe it! Then, within a week, I got another check and a go-ahead assignment for a second piece."

'I won first prize of $400 for a Course assignment!'

"Before taking your Course (which I checked out with the National Better Business Bureau), the short stories I scribbled for my two tiny tots never caught an editor's fancy," writes Emily Burns of Salem, Oregon.

"My first sale, to *National Catholic Weekly*, was a Course assignment. Then I submitted another Course assignment in a writer's competition and won first prize of $400!"

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Approved: State of Connecticut Board of Education

Research Clues

By JOHN H. HOLLIFIELD
Assistant Director, Center for Social Organization of Schools, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore.

How does the use of behavioral objectives affect student learning?

For teachers to use behavioral objectives means for them to specify exactly what information or skill they want students to learn during a period of study. This review of research supports the claim that under certain conditions teachers' use of behavioral objectives can increase relevant learning by students—and can do so without depressing incidental learning.

Relevant learning is defined as learning the information that is specified, while incidental learning is defined as learning more than what is specified. The ways in which teachers use behavioral objectives, says the author, will determine the objectives' effects on both relevant and incidental learning. First, use of behavioral objectives will increase relevant learning, provided that students are aware of the objectives and consider them important; that the objectives are not overly general, ambiguous, easy, or difficult; and that major objectives are not hidden among a flurry of lesser objectives.

Second, incidental learning may be increased if behavioral objectives are used during or following the presentation of material, rather than preceding the presentation. Essentially, if the teacher introduces the behavioral objectives before presenting the material, students will concentrate on achieving them to the exclusion or depression of other learning.

The author urges that behavioral objectives be viewed as one of several tools available for increasing student learning, and that individual teachers determine their usefulness in their own particular situations.

See Reginald F. Melton. "Resolution of Conflicting Claims Concerning the Effect of Behavioral Objectives on Student Learning." *Review of Educational Research* 48: 291-302; Spring 1978.

Can we measure accurately and effectively the creativity of elementary school students?

Many research studies try to determine effects of various educational processes on the creativity of students. This article implies that the results of most such studies should be taken with a grain of salt because the measurement of creativity is still far from a sure thing.

The author examined the quality, including the validity and reliability, of published creativity tests for elementary school students. He found the empirical evidence reported by publishers on these dimensions to be neither abundant nor strong.

Two considerations must temper judgments about tests of creativity, he says: Research on creativity testing is in its beginning stage, and the concept of creativity is itself an elusive one.

See Joseph M. Petrosko. "Measuring Creativity in the Elementary School: The Current State of the Art." *The Journal of Creative Behavior* 12: 109-19; second quarter, 1978.

Do basal readers still present stereotypes of certain categories of people?

According to this study, a lot has been done, but much remains to be done, to eliminate race, sex, and family stereotypes from basal readers. The author examined newly published preprimers and sixth grade readers in 13 reading series, focusing on sex-role stereotyping, the portrayal of minority characters, and the representation of family structures.

She found that publishers have attempted to eliminate stereotyping, some doing more than others. Portrayal of adults of both sexes as parents and professionals needs to be much more common, she says, and the variety of family structures should be more realistically portrayed.

See Diane W. Kyle. "Changes in Basal Reader Content: Has Anyone Been Listening?" *The Elementary School Journal* 78: 304-12; May 1978.

Do students perform better when their teacher's teaching style is congruent with their own level of development?

This study of 20 teachers and 94 fourth, fifth, and sixth graders found that students who were in "congruent" environments achieved better, spent more time on task, and enjoyed instructional tasks more than did students in "incongruent" environments.

A congruent environment was one in which there was a match between the socioemotional development of the student and the teaching style (direct or indirect) of the teacher. The authors assumed that immature students would flourish best with directive teachers and mature students with nondirective teachers. Students with low levels of development were thus matched with direct-style teachers who firmly established and controlled the learning environment. Students at higher developmental levels were matched with indirect-style teachers who allowed students freedom and encouraged participation.

Students in these two groups were then compared to two other groups of students, for whom developmental level and teacher style had been deliberately mismatched to put them in incongruent environments.

Each day for 20 school days, all the children met in small groups for 15 to 30 minutes of instruction in specific reading lessons. Observers noted the time they spent on task. The students' achievement was measured by written questions presented after each day's lesson; their enjoyment of tasks, by self-reports they made using an instrument for measuring affective perception.

The idea that student performance increases when teacher style and student developmental level are congruent has two implications, say the authors. First, either direct or indirect teaching styles may be effective, depending on the developmental level of the student. Second, searching for characteristics that make an "effective" teacher without considering the context and the type of student would seem to be a futile quest.

See H. Lyndall Rich and Andrew J. Bush. "The Effect of Congruent Teacher-Student Characteristics on Instructional Outcomes." *American Educational Research Journal* 15: 451-57; Summer 1978.

Does the size of their school affect how elementary students perceive their environment?

In this study, students perceived small elementary schools to be different from large schools on two dimen-

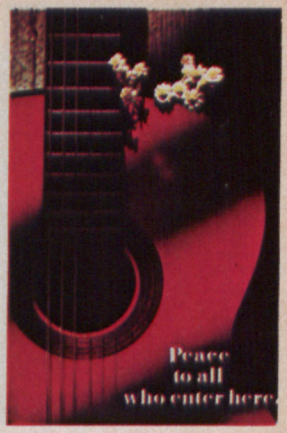
(continued on page 15)

2492 I am wanting to be loved.

2203 You're special.

2493 If you see someone without a smile, give them one of yours.

2319 When you come to the end of your rope, make a knot, and hang on.



438 Peace to all who enter here.

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2448 Nothing improves my hearing better than praise.

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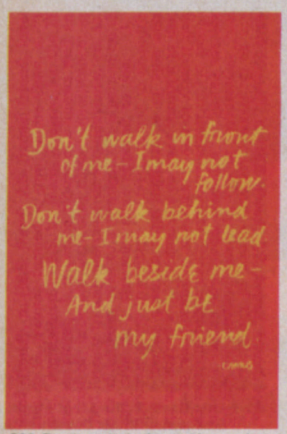
2302 Yes, Lord God, I believe.



398 Don't walk in front of me—I may not follow. Don't walk behind me—I may not lead. Walk beside me—and just be my friend.

2417 Love is like the moon: Beautiful and ever new.

2399 To know me is to love me.

2456 If you want a friend, be a friend.

2187 We're all in this together.

2479 I always see better with my heart.

630 There can be no rainbow without a cloud and a storm.

2353 Do not pray for an easy life. Pray to be a strong person.

2397 The pursuit of truth will set you free—even if you never catch up with it.

Happiness is like a butterfly.
The more you chase it, the more it will elude you.
But if you turn your attention to other things,
it comes and softly sits on your shoulder.

370 Happiness is like a butterfly. The more you chase it, the more it will elude you. But if you turn your attention to other things, it comes and softly sits on your shoulder.

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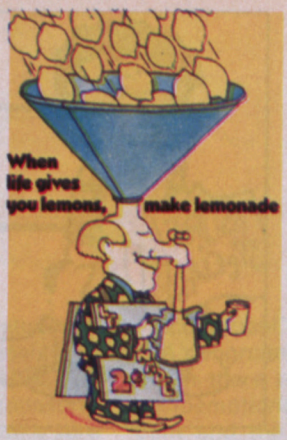
2186 We need each other.

2280 See, I make all things new.

756 Things take time.



724 When life gives you lemons, make lemonade.

2166 We do not remember days, we remember moments.

*2337 Big shots are only little shots who keep shooting.

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2183 After all is said and done, there's a lot more said than done.

2092 A ship in a harbor is safe, but that is not what ships are built for.

2196 I may have my faults, but being wrong isn't one of them.

2393 Things are always at their best in their beginning.

2504 I am easy to please as long as I have things my way.

2446 Happiness is the art of making a bouquet of those flowers within reach.

2595 The smallest good deed is better than the grandest good intention.

354 Happy are those who dream dreams and are ready to pay the price to make them come true.

404 Jesus of Nazareth requests the honor of your presence at a dinner to be given in his honor.

COMPLAINT FORM

Please write your complaint in the square below. Write legibly.

2208 Complaint Form. Please write your complaint in the square below. Write legibly.

2226 In every living thing is the spirit to be free.

2537 Love understands and therefore waits.

2330 Climb high, Climb far. Your goal the sky, Your aim the star!

715 No goal is too high if we climb with care and confidence.

2219 It is hard to be good.

2682 Thank you for NOT SMOKING.

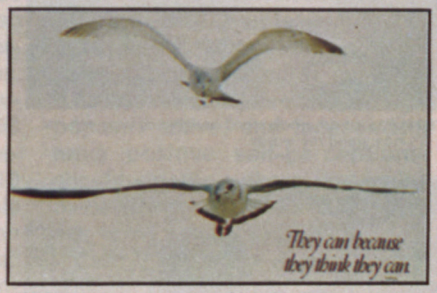
2570 To a friend's house the road is never long.

2523 If your heart is full of love, you always have something to give.

2344 I wake up slow.

2407 Happiness is found along the way, not at the end of the road.

2590 The greatest thing in life is to be needed.



660 They can because they think they can.

2158 The secret of success in life is for a person to be ready when his opportunity comes.

2121 When you dream, dream big!

2283 If you don't feel strong enough, try the Bread of Life.

2438 Hold to a true friend with both your hands.

2281 Slow me down, Lord.

2259 Be true to your own highest convictions.

2081 It is not how much we have, but how much we enjoy, that makes happiness.

2367 The more I study, the more I know. The more I know, the more I forget. The more I forget, the less I know. So why study?

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___	370	Happiness is
___	398	Don't walk in
___	404	Jesus of
___	438	Peace to all
___	630	There can be
___	660	They can
___	687	No act of
___	715	No goal is too
___	721	A dreamer
___	724	When life
___	756	Things take
___	760	If you do not
___	856	All I have
___	892	It's good to
___	2081	It is not how
___	2092	A ship in a
___	2121	When you
___	2158	The secret of
___	2166	We do not
___	2183	After all is
___	2186	We need each
___	2187	We're all in
___	2196	I may have
___	2203	You're special
___	2208	Complaint
___	2219	It is hard to
___	2226	In every living
___	2259	Be true to
___	2280	See, I make
___	2281	Slow me down
___	2283	If you don't
___	2293	May the peace
___	2297	I have come
___	2302	Yes, Lord God,
___	2319	When you
___	2330	Climb high,
___	2337	Big shots are
___	2344	I wake up
___	2353	Do not pray
___	2367	The more I
___	2393	Things are
___	2397	The pursuit of
___	2399	To know me
___	2407	Happiness is
___	2408	Take life one
___	2417	Love is like
___	2438	Hold to a true
___	2439	Everybody has
___	2446	Happiness is
___	2448	Nothing
___	2456	If you want a
___	2469	You have only
___	2479	I always see
___	2492	I am wanting
___	2493	If you see
___	2503	We all have our
___	2504	I am easy to
___	2523	If your heart
___	2537	Love understands
___	2570	To a friend's
___	2590	The greatest
___	2591	Following the
___	2595	The smallest
___	2682	Thank you

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2503 We all have our hang-ups.

760 If you do not understand my silence, you will not understand my words.

2439 Everybody has a right to my opinion.

856 All I have seen teaches me to trust the Creator for all I have not seen.

2591 Following the crowd can lead nowhere.

892 It's good to be petted a little, praised a little, appreciated a little.

2293 May the Peace of Christ be with you.

2469 You have only to open your eyes to see the hand of God.

CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 1

Research Clues

(continued)

sions—*community* and *awareness*. As defined by the study's author, *community* pertains to friendliness and warmth; *awareness*, to the personal, poetic, and political dimensions of schools. The study seems to say that small schools cater more to the personal needs of students than do large schools.

Still, the author speculates, it may be factors other than school size but related to it that determine how students perceive schools. For example, smaller schools may be located in smaller communities, where the personal needs of children are emphasized more than they are in large communities.

The author also examined possible differences on other dimensions, which he categorized as practicality, propriety (politeness and consideration), and scholarship (rigorous academic emphasis). He found no significant differences.

The characterization of schools in this study as large and small seems to have been somewhat blurred. A total of 30 schools were examined, and the median size was chosen as the point that differentiated large schools from small ones. Thus one "large" school had 476 students, while one "small" school had 466 students. It would be interesting to reanalyze the data, dropping the 10 schools in the middle from the sample and making the comparison between the 10 largest and 10 smallest schools.

See John C. Moracco. "The Relationship Between the Size of Elementary Schools and Pupils' Perceptions of Their Environment." *Education* 98: 451-54; Summer 1978.

Do class clowns differ from other students?

In many ways, according to this study of 96 class clowns identified by teachers from a sample of 3,500 eighth grade students. Information was collected by questionnaire from the teachers, the clowns, and other students. Teachers see clowns as more assertive, unruly, attention-seeking, leading, and cheerful than their classmates, but as less accomplishing (*i.e.*, lower in behaviors leading to completion of academic tasks).

The clowns themselves show less positive attitudes toward teachers and principals than do their classmates. They also have greater self-esteem—seeing themselves as leaders and as individuals who are vocal in expressing ideas and opinions. Their classmates, in contrast, appear to be less confident about speaking up in class and are less satisfied with themselves.

This study points out that class clowns have many behaviors and personal characteristics in common with adult "wits." They are leaders. They are popular, active, and independent and have positive self-perceptions. We should, say the authors, find ways to put these worthwhile traits to constructive use in the schooling process.

See Sandra Bowman Damico and William W. Purkey. "Class Clowns: A Study of Middle School Students." *American Educational Research Journal* 15: 391-98; Summer 1978.

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 18

Letters

Ideas and opinions in this feature are those of the writers and not necessarily of the NEA. "Letters" is primarily a forum for NEA members. If you are currently a member, please paste the mailing label from a recent copy of Today's Education *at the top of your letter. Also indicate your school, position, and home address.*

Grade Inflation

Today's Education asked readers to tell us what they thought about the ideas Ralph Kane expressed in "In Defense of Grade Inflation" (November-December). Here are excerpts from some of the letters that came in.

I agree that children should be graded according to achievement within their range of abilities. But doesn't this necessitate ability grouping? Without ability grouping, or I.Q. tests, or standardized tests—when children are graded on a pass/fail or no-grade system—how do you know what their ability is?

—Paul du Vair, *president, Wisconsin Education Associations Council, Madison.*

I can say that I have given A's to an entire class. I did not have to apologize, but I did have to defend my criteria for evaluation. When some of my students took the same course in college the next year, however, they told me the college material was only a review of their work in my course.

Yes, Mr. Kane, when students compete against themselves and set high standards, they will work toward their full potential.

—Pat Schumacher, *commercial foods teacher, Hanna High School, Brownsville, Texas.*

It's becoming difficult to fail in any meaningful way, and this in turn has cheapened success to such a degree that we have no motivation to attain it. The quest for creative excellence, disciplined thinking, and elegance of presentation has become a ritual whose conclusion is invariably that "everybody makes it . . . sort of." This is, among other things, just plain boring. Of all things on earth, the search for a personal truth should not be boring!

—James D. Howze, *professor of studio art, Texas Tech, Lubbock.*

Aside from souffles and hot air balloons, inflation in anything is essentially destructive because it distorts reality. Grade inflation often arises from the desire to mask poor instruction or to win over students. It is, however, a fraud perpetrated on good and poor students and a misrepresentation of the discipline involved.

Rather than consume ourselves in a sham battle over grade inflation, we should get on with the job and try to stimulate some real growth in our students.

—David N. Alloway, *professor of sociology, School of Social and Behavioral Sciences, Montclair State College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey.*

If the dichotomy between grades and standards that Kane proposes actually exists, grades have no value in evaluating a person's abilities and skills. Also, grades would apparently provide little motivation for the students.

The vast majority of graduates are or could be willing workers had they been taught the skills they need. Many are surprised—even upset—to find they are deficient in areas in which teachers had certified, through grades, their proficiency.

—Robert W. Hinds, *department of geology, Slippery Rock State College, Slippery Rock, Pennsylvania.*

I agree with many of Kane's ideas, but I think he missed a major point. People do equate grades with standards. I haven't known any school to define an A as anything less than the best, even though some grading systems indicate various levels of ability and degrees of effort.

To my mind, the major cause of grade inflation is that schools still consider academic subjects their prime offering, but the students don't. In the sixties, we were handed the new math and new language teaching methods. At the same time, we were immersed in kids. Then if the kids didn't learn, people said "the teachers didn't teach." Inflated grades? You bet! And they'll stay that way until we start teaching our offspring the things they really see the need to learn.

—Daniel K. Borregard, *mathematics teacher, Clearview Junior High School, Mullica Hill, New Jersey.*

Professors and employers can spare little time for semiliterates. School is the place to show them the facts and give them remedial help.

Louis A. Waters, *professor of English, San Jose State University, San Jose, California.*

Mr. Kane says he will never apologize to anyone if he gives a class all A's, but that doesn't mean he doesn't owe apologies—to students most of all. The worst thing a teacher can do is send a student into society with false credentials or with the idea he is more capable than he really is.

—C. Richard Byers, *science department chairman, Linton Intermediate High School, Penn Hills School District, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.*

No one would even think of equating a B earned in a practical course with the same grade earned in an advanced placement course. Everyone realizes the level of achievement must be different. No one is really fooled—if that is the right word—by a student's higher grade, but it gives him added incentive—and isn't that what education is all about?

Isn't it more important to be concerned about the high grades we give students who can merely repeat what we say or what they read but comprehend little or none of it?

—Ray Cichon, Jr., *English teacher, Bartlett High School, Webster, Massachusetts.*

Awarding above-average and superior grades to below-average and deficient students spreads much joy. The student is flushed with success, the parents burst with pride, administrators marvel at the teacher's ability, and the teacher basks in praise. Actually, the student is lied to, the parents are duped, administrators are perplexed, and the teacher must live with his or her conscience.

Many of my eighth graders who perform at the fifth and sixth grade levels earn high grades—but I report the grade to the child and parent in context.

—Thomas C. Campion, *chairman, so-*

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 25

Letters

(continued)

cial studies department, Thomas Johnson Junior High School, Lanham, Maryland.

Teacher Exchange

Thomas Kaser's article ("American Exchange Teachers in Britain—Good Show!" September-October) interested me especially, as I had been on a do-it-yourself exchange in France. There, too, the equipment and supplies were less abundant, the students more serious and respectful but less spontaneous, than in the United States. In France, too, the teachers are highly unionized. Their working conditions and schedule are much better than in Britain.

That year was one of the most professionally profitable and personally satisfying of my life—I wish more teachers could exchange.

—Susan Hunter, *French teacher, Sierra Vista Public Schools, Sierra Vista, Arizona.*

Educational Materials from Business

I commend Sheila Harty ("Who Produced These Teaching Materials?" November-December). I retired from teaching in 1964, but even then I was concerned—not just by the effects of materials from business corporations on the future leaders of our country, but by the determination of Big Business to maintain the existing military-industrial complex. When Hug says that some corporations see classroom materials as "a powerful tool for molding young minds" and that "teachers have not been trained to evaluate materials," he is making Harty's point.

—Elizabeth Weidemann, *retired seventh and eighth grade teacher, Dearborn, Michigan.*

Any thinking teacher can cut and paste to fit his or her needs, demonstrate insidious advertising practices, and toss poor materials in the trash—or refrain from ordering materials. Teachers without common sense can be taught rules for use of materials from industry in an education course.

If we must have a law, let it require that materials from industry bear the label, "These materials can be biased and may be hazardous to your thinking."

—Virginia Malone, *Coke Stevenson Middle School, San Antonio, Texas.*

Industry-produced materials can be used to teach English skills and also the ability to discriminate. To create reading and writing assignments in vocational-technical English, I scrounged any manuals or reprints I could get from dealers, stores, and the public utilities companies. One instruction manual taught vocabulary, the importance of sequence, the relation of details to the main idea, and how to read diagrams. I used a descriptive folder on using cement mixes to teach students to skim for specific facts. The class gave a poor rating to a film on wood production because they felt it was a PR job.

—Eleanor Nudd, *retired high school English teacher, Tilton, New Hampshire.*

The Disruptive and the Learning Disabled

Let me point out an unjustified conclusion in the Trends item "Disruptions and Learning Problems Go Together" (November-December). At present one of the main ways of identifying a learning disability is to note a discrepancy between IQ and achievement. One might conclude not that learning disabled students are disruptive, but that disruptive students master less and thus end up in classes for the learning disabled.

—Penny Thackeray, *severe behavior disorder counselor, Greenhills-Forest Park School District, Cincinnati, Ohio.*

TV and Children

Nancy Larrick ("Do You Have TV Interference?" November-December) should be commended for continuing the exposé of the effect of TV on the impressionable minds of students.

Iceland bans TV every Thursday and all of July. If parents want their children to become literate readers, writers, and thinkers, they should ban TV for the whole school year and restrict their own viewing to 3½ hours a week.

—Robert G. Arthur, *English teacher, Huntington High School, Huntington, New York.*

Teaching and the Brain

Leslie Hart's article ("Brain-Compatible Teaching," November-December) presented a complex subject succinctly. It overlooked, however, the concept of hemispheric specialization. The left side of the brain "prefers" logical, analytic, sequential activities, while the right side is oriented to the visual, spatial, creative. Today's visual technology reinforces visual learning, and training in visual perception gives a good foundation for work in the basic skills.

The International Visual Literacy Association encourages brain-compatible programs of total education. Anyone interested in such programs can write me for information.

—Leon R. Nuell, *chairman, art department, Middle Tennessee State University, Murfreesboro.*

In an effort to be scientific, schools have become overdirected. Students have little opportunity to continue the phenomenal growth of the preschool years. Hart is on the growing edge of a small group of thinkers who are getting to basic knowledge of how learning occurs.

—Wayne Jennings, *principal, Battle Creek Junior High School, St. Paul, Minnesota.*

Much of what Hart says makes good sense in light of my own observations. However, I take exception to the idea that it's random rather than organized input and quantity rather than order of input that count.

Choice of materials and experiences may appear random but should never be aimless. Furthermore, giving learners ample time to interact with materials is important, although it reduces the number of experiences they can have.

—Judith Bartel, *classroom teacher, Oregon City, Oregon.*

Socioeconomic Status and Failure

The authors of the study on failure and self-concept reviewed in "Research Clues" for November-December conclude that academic failure lowers the self-concepts of children with high, but not of those with low, socioeconomic status. One might equally conclude that too high parental expectation causes the drop in self-esteem. Perhaps we should shift our attention to parents, not "failing" students.

—John T. Newport, *professor of elementary education, Southwest Missouri State University, Springfield.*

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☐ Yes ☐ No

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☐ Yes ☐ No

11. What color is your hair?
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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 17

Teacher Opinion Poll

Violence Against Teachers

How many teachers have been victims of violence by students in the nation's public schools? According to NEA estimates for the past school year:

- 70,000 teachers (1 in 33) were physically attacked at least once.
- 250,000 teachers (1 in 8) had personal property damaged.
- 500,000 teachers (1 in 4) had personal property stolen. These estimates are based on NEA's 1978 Teacher Opinion Poll of a national sample of teachers.

More than 3,000 of the teachers who had been attacked required medical attention in a hospital emergency room; more than 9,000 required attention either in a school clinic or in a doctor's office. About 10,000 had to miss one or more days of school to recuperate.

Since 1973, NEA has collected data about incidences of physical attacks on teachers by students. Each year, about 3 percent of teachers have reported at least one attack. At first glance this figure may seem small, but the number it represents—about 70,000 teachers each year since 1973—is significant.

The 1977-78 poll also showed that—

- Of the teachers who reported having been attacked, proportionately more taught in the eastern part of the country, in city school systems, and in junior high schools.
- 17 percent said they were afraid that they might be personally attacked. Teachers in city school systems were more concerned about personal harm than were teachers elsewhere.
- When teachers who reported being attacked were asked whether disciplinary action had been taken against the attacker, 14 percent said no.

—NEA Research.

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The Teacher and the Law

PREGNANCY BILL

On December 7, 1976, women workers lost a battle. On that day, the Supreme Court, in *General Electric Co. v. Gilbert*, declared that comprehensive employee disability plans that excluded pregnancy benefits were legal. But almost two years later, women won the war. On October 15, 1978, Congress passed the Pregnancy Disability Bill, and on October 31 President Carter signed it into law. The new law not only overcomes the Gilbert decision by forcing comprehensive sick leave and disability plans to include pregnancy, but expands the rights of pregnant women into all areas of employment.

The law amends Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which prohibits discrimination "because of sex" or "on the basis of sex," so that those phrases now specifically include pregnancy, childbirth, and all related medical conditions. In the *Gilbert* decision, the Court had refused to read Title VII in this manner.

The NEA vigorously supported this legislation, cooperating with many other workers', civil rights, religious, and women's organizations in the Campaign To End Discrimination Against Pregnant Workers.

Ruth Weyand, co-chair of this coalition, says the new amendment means that pregnancy, or any condition related to it, can no longer be singled out and treated differently from any other matters covered by health plans, sick leave provisions, or disability insurance offered by employers. According to Ms. Weyand, "One of the biggest things it's going to cover is hospital and medical plans."

This means that employee health plans must—

- Cover cost of delivery and prenatal care in the same manner as other medical costs.
- Set deductible rates for pregnancy no higher than for other medical conditions.
- Give pregnant employees the same benefits granted other employees for their medical needs—not the same benefits as other employees' wives.
- Entitle pregnant employees to the same seniority and job security benefits as others who are temporarily disabled.
- Not force pregnant women to leave their jobs or take leave from their jobs purely on the basis of their pregnancy.
- If they offer major medical coverage for all other conditions, include pregnancy in such coverage.

All plans initiated after enactment of the amendment must comply with it; all plans operating at the time of its enactment must comply by April 28, 1979. Until October 31, 1979, or the expiration date of a collective bargaining agreement in effect at the time of enactment, employers may not reduce benefits provided to employees "either directly or by failing to provide sufficient contributions to a fringe benefit fund or insurance program."

However, the bill does allow the costs of compliance to "be apportioned between employers and employees" from the time of enactment. In this case, employer and employee each must pay the same proportion of the compliance costs as of all previous benefits.

Congress reached a compromise on whether to cover abortions. The final law mandates payment for abortion only when the pregnancy endangers the life of the mother, but it demands that employee health and disability plans treat all medical complications arising from abortion as they do any other medical condition.

Opponents of the bill had argued that the costs of pregnancy coverage might be so high that employers would be forced to end the benefits they already offered employees. The Chamber of Commerce claimed that the bill "could force some employers to drop their present plans in order to remain viable business organizations."

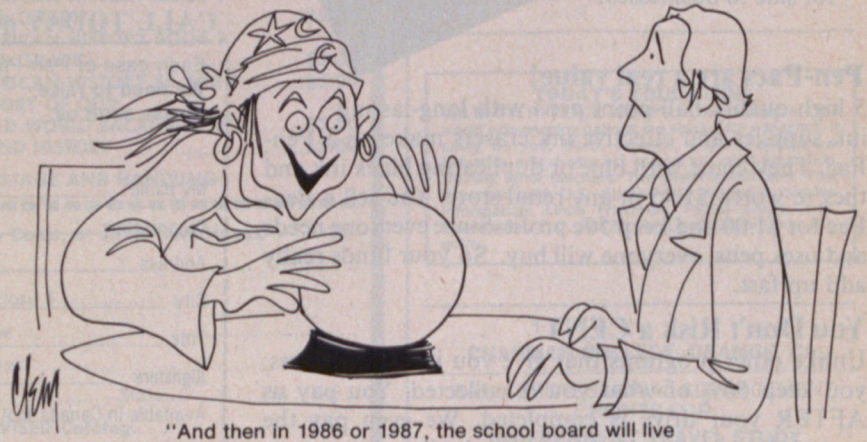
However, Alexis Herman, director of the Women's Bureau of the Employment Standards Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor, countered this argument. Pregnancy benefits, she said, would amount to "only one third of one percent of the total lifetime earnings of the average female worker."

Studies from two states, New Jersey and Hawaii, which had already mandated inclusion of pregnancy benefits, disclosed no drastic increase in costs.

According to Patricia K. Putnam, associate dean of the University of Hawaii's John A. Burns School of Medicine, pregnancy disability coverage "did not have the effect of increasing the cost for women employees' coverage," and the average duration of men's disability periods continued to exceed that of women's.

Since the *Gilbert* decision, teachers have tried, as yet unsuccessfully, to use Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 to force school boards to treat pregnancy in the same manner in which they handle any other medical condition or disability. Title IX prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in all federally funded education programs, but courts have been reluctant to apply this statute in employment matters. In matters involving maternity benefits, the new amendment to Title VII should circumvent this barrier.

—Barbara Stein, *NEA Teacher Rights.*



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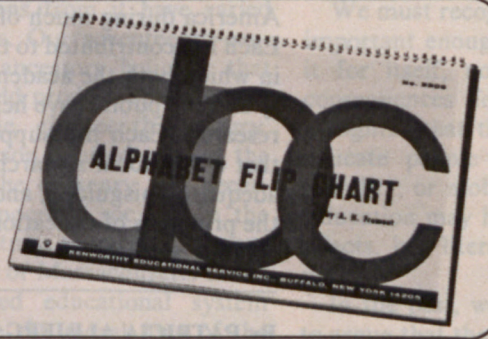

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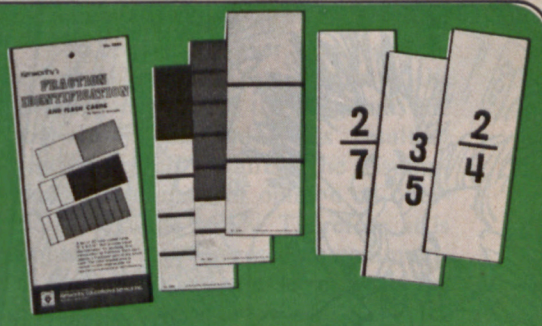

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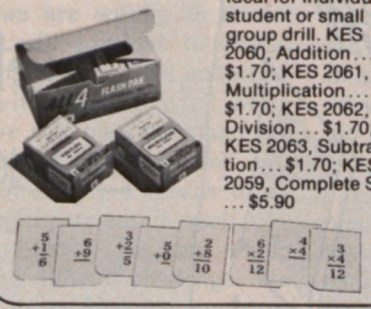

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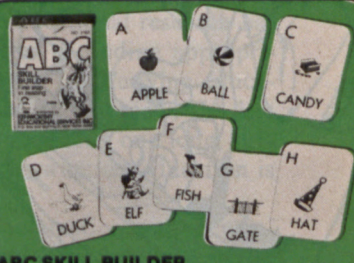

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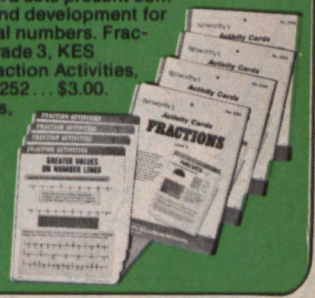

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Let's Get Together on Educational Research

Three general problems are critical difficulties in educational research. Each of them affects the federal role in educational research and development and how the National Institute of Education (NIE) will deal with this role in the next several years.

First, let's look at the three difficulties, which have characterized educational research and development in America during much of this century. Each has contributed to the low esteem in which both the academic community and the public have held educational research. Each has supported charges that educational research has been inadequate, misguided, and irrelevant to the problems of educational practitioners and consumers.

By PATRICIA ALBJERG GRAHAM
Director, National Institute of Education.

The first problem is that we have demanded too much from our educational system. American society tends to view schools as a cure-all for every social and economic problem. Boosters of education have always believed they could best promote the extension of schooling by promising that if more people were educated, valuable consequences for society would result.

The specific promises for education and expectations from it have varied with the times. Our seventeenth-century Puritan ancestors believed that education would produce spiritual salvation. In the eighteenth century, Thomas Jefferson assured us that the education of the citizenry was necessary for a democratic society. In the nineteenth century, Horace Mann convinced citizens of Massachusetts that a publicly funded educational system would enhance the moral tone of the state. More recently, we have called upon education to provide greater social and economic mobility for its recipients.

In *Teacher in America,* Jacques Barzun sums up this problem of elevated and contradictory expectations.

Sociologists and the general public, he maintains, continue to expect the public schools to generate a classless society, do away with racial prejudice, make happy marriages, end the housing shortage, and produce patriotic and religious citizens.

Perhaps it is fortunate that the Puritans, Jefferson, and Mann made their arguments for schooling before this country had an educational research enterprise. The research design to assess the effectiveness of education in producing eternal salvation is elusive indeed!

When researchers assessed and challenged education's performance of the more recent promise of promoting social and economic quality through education, the public assumed that education had failed. Few practitioners or researchers asked the more basic question, namely, Should education by itself be expected to produce changes in the social and economic order?

Research that concentrates on questions dictated by unrealistic societal expectations for education has several negative consequences.

- First, the results that researchers report are generally negative, which reduces practitioners' morale and lowers the status of education in general.
- Second, since the reputation of research is, in a sense, tied to the perceived success of its subject, educational research also suffers.
- Third, and most important, by devoting attention to the social impact of educational "outcomes," researchers neglect study of the internal processes and problems of education.

We must recognize that education is important enough that we must study it for itself, not just to explore its consequences for society. We must recognize that the primary reason we educate people is not for salvation, morality, or mobility, but for literacy. Education may have other, useful side effects, but literacy must be our first goal.

In the past, we have been reluctant to argue that the promotion of literacy in its broadest sense was adequate justification for the educational system. Until we are willing to do so, however, we will continue to charge the educational system with undertakings in which it is doomed to fail. More important, we will misunderstand the central purpose of education itself. Education is not simply a means to an end; it is a legitimate end in itself.

Achieving literacy for our whole population is a difficult challenge. We are unlikely to achieve genuine progress toward universal literacy unless we make it the preeminent goal for our educational system.

To avoid any misunderstanding of my intent, let me make several qualifications on this point. First, in arguing for the goal of literacy for education, I am not embracing a narrow back-to-the-basics philosophy. I am arguing for preparing persons with the many skills they will need to function effectively in our society.

Second, in arguing that it is unreasonable to expect education by itself to equalize income and eliminate social class, I am not taking the position that education should endorse the status quo. To the contrary, one of the major goals of the NIE is to promote equality of educational opportunity. We limit our charge, however, to reducing the predictive value of race, sex, and class on *academic* performance.

My third qualification deals with the sources of unrealistic demands on education. Elevated claims for schooling have come from two directions: School professionals have made extravagant promises to the public, and the public has made unrealistic demands on the educational system. I am not arguing for shielding public schools from the voices of parents and taxpayers, nor am I assuming that the research community exerts an omnipotent influence on public opinion or on the assumptions of practicing educators.

I do believe, however, that researchers are significant participants in the ongoing debate. In the long run, the knowledge and judgments resulting from research do affect the assumptions and climate of opinion on questions of public policy. Therefore, it is important that the research community promote a realistic set of goals for education.

The second problem which has characterized educational research has been the problem of finding appropriate methodologies for studying educational problems. In my view, the last 70 years have produced one long, turgid debate about whether education is a discipline.

Colleges of education and departments of education within universities have had to overcome a number of handicaps in their battle for academic status and acceptability. Education is a relative newcomer to the university community. As an applied or clinical enterprise which trains practitioners, education has been accused of academic impurity—an accusation once also leveled at medical, law, and business schools. Education has carried an additional burden, however: its practitioners possess neither wealth nor high occupational status in the eyes of the larger society.

Given these problems, it is not surprising that education research has responded (or perhaps, I might argue, has overreacted) with a stress on methodological purity. Partly because the quantitative methods of the physical sciences have enjoyed the highest academic status, educational researchers have "gone empirical" with a vengeance.

Quantitative methodology, as it has percolated down through the physical sciences to the social sciences, has become exceedingly popular in educa-

tional research. Few dissertations and few research articles are free of elaborately designed empirical procedures that draw upon statistical models. Sometimes these models are appropriate, but sometimes they are forced.

This emphasis on empirical data has brought rigor and sophistication to research on a number of important educational issues. Many of these studies have been very valuable. There have been a number of negative consequences, however. Perhaps most important among these is the way in which these research methods have limited our selection of research topics to questions that could be addressed by such methods, or, worse, has led us to believe that these methods were sufficient to address any issue that was at hand.

The third difficulty of educational research is in the selection of significant topics for research. The source of this problem relates to the two characteristics I have already outlined. Focusing attention on the societal outcomes of schooling has diverted attention from more basic issues in education, and our search for disciplinary rigor has led us to limit our choice of problems to those suited to our research strategies and methodologies.

Both tendencies have led us to ignore fundamental processes and issues related to the problem of education for literacy. For example, consider the role of the teacher. Large-scale surveys by economists and sociologists have confirmed the rather commonsense notion that family, media, and peer influences, taken together, may be more important than schooling in determining a student's values and chances to succeed later in life. A variety of evidence has accumulated, however, to support the position that the classroom teacher is the most powerful single factor affecting academic achievement. Certainly, teachers' attitudes and behaviors are more within the purview of educational researchers than are those of family, media, and peers.

We need to concentrate our resources on educational activities, recognizing that although these are not the only influences that affect learning, they are the ones most accessible to educational researchers. Thus, we need to look at teachers.

Our research and reform strategies tend to ignore or obscure that central truth, however. We have spent millions of dollars designing "teacher-proof" materials and curriculums and other programs which assume we can improve teachers by stuffing them full of the latest knowledge on how to teach or what to use or how to use it. Ironically, one of the conclusions of the recent Rand study on educational change was that a key variable in efforts to change schools was a sense of efficacy on the part of teachers, defined as teachers' sense that what they do in the classroom makes a difference. Our past methods often appear to have been aimed at undermining that sense of efficacy, rather than building it up.

In addition, even the research we have carried out on teaching tends to be driven by the theories of other academic disciplines or designed to accommodate our quantitative methods. Writing in the *Journal of Teacher Education,* David Berliner has recently reflected on this problem:

> Researchers have spent a good deal of time counting teacher behaviors. We know something about the number of higher and lower cognitive questions asked per unit time, we have determined the rate of positive verbal praise, the number of criticisms made, the number of probes, etc. For many of these variables a low correlation with some student outcome measure has been found. But in classroom observation one becomes acutely aware of the difference between a higher cognitive question asked after a train of thought is running out, and the same type of question asked after a series of lower cognitive questions has been used to establish a foundation from which to explore higher-order ideas. Teachers sometimes ask inane questions . . . (or) the teacher's probing questions may have been as skillful as Socrates'; but only their frequency was recorded.

There are several related alternatives to the pattern of assumptions and research strategies common in the past. The first step is to focus on the important, difficult basic questions in teaching for literacy.

For example, it is clear that the one central problem for today's teachers is how to provide equitable and effective services to increasingly heterogeneous groups of students. Classrooms include children from diverse social, ethnic, racial, and linguistic backgrounds. At the same time, teachers are asked to address the social and learning problems of the physically and mentally handicapped and to correct the long years of overt and subtle educational discrimination suffered by girls and young women. We need to know more about how successful teachers manage in this situation.

In addition to asking the right questions, we need to explore a variety of methods rather than rely too much on a few. Ethnographies, case studies, and observational techniques in classroom settings are examples of the types of approaches which can complement traditional quantitative techniques.

"It is impossible to see how there can be an adequate flow of subject-matter to set and control the problems investigators deal with, unless there is active participation on the part of those directly engaged in teaching."

—John Dewey.

Finally, we may need to explore new paradigms and metaphors in our approach to the problems of education for literacy. The scientific method is not the only lens through which we can view the world.

David Cohen has recently stated one option:

> . . . it would seem wiser from the perspective of craft to more strongly encourage the accumulation of experiential knowledge by masters of the craft, and to improve the ways in which this knowledge could be tested, criticized, and passed on to their apprentices. The assumption critical to this view, then, is that educational practice turns principally on experiential knowledge and trained judgment. Thus its accumulation and transmission would occur in different and less mechanical ways than are typically associated with the scientific view.

The effect of all the phenomena I have described on the development of research suggests that we must begin to build a new set of expectations and research postures for the future if we are to be more successful in addressing the major problems of education for literacy. I do not mean that we should look for a single research paradigm to

serve as a panacea; nor do I mean that we should abandon the methodological expertise and the substantive work done as a result of the pressures I have cited. We are not dealing with a simple "theory versus practice" problem. We are dealing with an enormously complex problem of theory and practice in research and development in which many desirable outcomes may not be as "measurable" as they are in more purely scientific research.

The really "hard" questions involved in educating for literacy, because they do not lend themselves easily to the "hard" disciplines, challenge our ability to provide answers. How do we help a school principal become an effective leader? How do we assure teachers that all their students can learn under their direction? But I am less concerned about the difficulties of finding answers than I am about ensuring that we focus on significant questions. Such research will require scholars and practitioners undertaking it to accept greater intellectual risks, but when it is successful, the increased understanding will be substantial.

These three fundamental problems of educational research can also be illustrated by examining the federal role in research and development. Let me sketch some illustrations of dilemmas from the federal arena.

First, the federal government has actively participated in developing and perpetuating several of these problems. It designed and/or paid for much of the past overly quantitative research. It has also supported research which assumed that education would solve all our social problems and sponsored many of those curriculum efforts that minimized the importance of the role of teachers. And it was responsible for the multitude of top-down reform programs that assumed that all wisdom resided in Washington, D.C.

NIE is beginning to change its priorities to reflect the lessons of past experiences. The research agenda and organization at the Institute reflect its concerns for a focus on the goal of literacy, on the use of diverse methods, and on the significant problems of educational practice.

Second, the National Institute of Education can be viewed as a model of the problem of educational research

"Wisdom of the Practitioner"

Each year, the Institute for Research on Teaching (IRT) at Michigan State University employs several teachers as research collaborators who work with the Institute half-time while continuing to teach half-time in their regular classrooms. As collaborators, the teachers bring the insights and experience of the practitioner to the design and conduct of research. Together, teachers and the Institute's researchers seek to better understand and to improve the practice of teaching.

During the 1977-78 school year, I was one of IRT's teacher collaborators. As such I participated directly in two research projects: one investigating teachers' allocation of time, and the other investigating how teachers plan. In these projects, I helped evaluate research design, collected data by observing and conducting interviews with teachers, and assisted with tabulating and reporting the findings. I also participated indirectly in several other projects.

As a collaborator, I became both more familiar with the ways of researching teaching and more aware of the dynamics of classroom teaching. Now, in full-time teaching, I find myself more reflective on my own teaching and more sensitive to the nuances of my particular classroom.

My experiences as a collaborator have convinced me, however, that the tradition of the "research establishment" is hard to change. Too easily, teachers become consultants to rather than full participants in the research process. Too easily the researcher becomes the sole originator of the research, while the practitioner becomes simply the object of study rather than an investigator as well. If teachers are to be full partners in research (as we believe they should be), they must be coinvestigators who share with researchers the responsibility for the design and execution of the research and for the interpretation and dissemination of the results.

After a year of collaboration, I have realized that there are limits to what teachers are asked to contribute and to what they can contribute as collaborators. Because they lack experience in working with teachers and in classrooms, researchers sometimes don't carry out their intentions to include teachers as coinvestigators. Likewise, lack of involvement, time, training, and sufficient rewards can limit teachers' participation.

These limitations can be overcome with the cooperation of research institutions—such as the IRT—and the schools where teachers are employed. Research institutions can hire teachers to work as coinvestigators (as IRT does) and provide them with the necessary skills and expertise for conducting research. Such institutions can also, as IRT has done in one case, locate themselves within a school and train teachers to investigate questions in their own classrooms.

With the support of state departments, schools, too, can facilitate coinvestigation by encouraging, supporting, and rewarding teachers' participation. Perhaps they could let teachers choose to participate in research instead of taking courses to maintain their certification.

If teachers become full partners in research, the lurking dangers of researchers' isolation and "ivory toweritis" will be lessened. We can become researchers of our own classrooms and of our behavior in them. We can work individually or collectively with researchers to get a broader perspective on and a clearer insight into those dynamics of classroom interactions that most interest and perplex us. More probably, then, will the center of research on teaching move from the university campus to the schools and classrooms where teaching occurs. And more probably, too, will the "wisdom of the practitioner" become the guideline for meaningful research. □

—Jack Gajewski, *fourth grade teacher, Glencairn Elementary School, East Lansing, Michigan.*

This comment is based on an article in the summer 1978 *Communication Quarterly* of the Institute for Research on Teaching.

and development. Like departments of education within universities, the NIE is a newcomer to the federal bureaucracy and deals with a loosely defined clientele that is plagued by low status and many societal pressures. Similarly, NIE is often caught between critics who charge that research has no contribution to make to improving educational practice and "supporters" who expect us to solve complex social problems in a flash.

I also see a parallel between the operations of the Institute and the methodological problems of educational research. Just as one research paradigm has dominated the study of education, the federal government also has often relied too greatly on a single way of doing business.

In a real sense, NIE's methodology is our procurement policy. And just as researchers may have overused multivariate analysis, we may have overused the "request for proposal" (RFP). The RFP approach permits the funding agency to select the subject and design of the research and then to solicit competitive proposals for carrying it out. The authors of the proposal selected receive a contract to do the work specified. The RFP is an alternative to funding unsolicited proposals through the mechanism of the grant.

A recent report revealed that in past years, about 80 percent of NIE funding has been carried out through contracts resulting from RFP's. To carry the analogy a bit further, I feel this method has resulted in several unintended negative consequences.

- First, the RFP-contract route tends to attract only a small segment of the total research talent from the field. Relatively large firms have been more successful in competing through this mechanism, and few females or minority researchers have been supported through it. Many university-based researchers have been unable to compete for RFP's because they could not get their proposals through their university contract and grants office in the time allocated in the RFP.
- Second, the RFP mechanism treats researchers as second-class participants in the research enterprise. The assumption behind the RFP is that the federal agency staff can do the best job of research design and product specification. Thus, the researchers are treated like the implementors of a top-down federal reform program, rather than as individuals whose knowledge of problems that need research attention and whose capacity to design such research is at least as comprehensive as that of the federal employees at NIE.

By these observations I am not advocating abandonment of the RFP, any more than I am suggesting that we phase out statistical techniques. What I do believe is that we need a more balanced set of ways to involve the field of researchers *and* practitioners in our programs. In the next several years, NIE will expand grants competitions and unsolicited proposal programs and will experiment with new methods of procurement.

Despite my criticisms of educational research, my judgment of its health and future is highly optimistic. We can change the kinds of topics we pursue and the range of methodologies we use. What is decisive is that we have the body of skilled and talented researchers to make these changes. □

Dr. Graham spoke on this topic at greater length at the 1978 annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association in Toronto, Canada.

Teachers Suggest Research Topics

Dr. Graham's "third difficulty of educational research" is in the selection of significant topics for study. She cites two reasons for this—"focusing attention on the societal outcomes of schooling has diverted attention from more basic issues in education, and our search for disciplinary rigor has led us to limit our choice of problems to those suited to our research strategies and methodologies." NEA would add a third dimension—namely, that topics traditionally are identified by members of the "research establishment" and not by classroom teachers who work with students every day and see firsthand what interferes with teaching and learning.

In November 1978, as part of NEA's Washington Instructional Conference for teacher leaders, some 20 teachers took part in a workshop entitled Teachers and Research: It's Time To Get into the Act. As a part of the workshop, teachers listed some topics that in their opinion require study and research. Here are the topics they identified, not in order of priority but as they were brought up in the workshop. Do you agree that these would be good topics? If you would like to add to the list, please send your suggestions to Lois Karasik, *Today's Education.*

- What kinds of teacher interventions are effective with young children?
- Which teacher interventions lead to student motivation?
- What are the effects of parental involvement on students' learning?
- What effect does TV have on students' motivation? On students' retention? Does TV affect a child's ability to communicate verbally?
- Which forces, within and outside the school, inhibit gifted children from reaching their potential?
- Is it possible to use a humanistic as well as a scientific method of research? (e.g., How do we measure the "glimmer in the eye" as well as iambic pentameter in a Shakespeare sonnet?)
- Should the school's accountability include accountability for improving students' self-esteem, and if so, how can this be measured?
- What are the effects of "reverse sexism" on adolescents' images of themselves?
- Is any one teaching style more effective than another?
- How does the compatibility of teachers' teaching styles influence the effectiveness of team teaching?
- Is there a body of knowledge that constitutes a discipline of education?
- Why do teachers often feel victimized and have a poor opinion of themselves? Do teachers have a different idea of themselves in a district that has collective bargaining than in a district that doesn't?
- Which stresses inhibit a teacher in the classroom from teaching effectively?
- Who should be involved in research on teaching and learning?
- To what extent is the value of research compromised by the influence of political expedience? □

Mary and Mrs. Brown

By EVELYN R. FULBRIGHT
Dean, School of Education, West Georgia College, Carrollton, Georgia; Former Elementary Teacher and Administrator.

It was Valentine's Day. I had just walked into a classroom to observe an experimental reading class. A girl with sparkling eyes caught my attention, mainly because she was larger than the rest of the children and because she had a big valentine on her desk.

Then it all came back—the classroom many years earlier when I was a preservice teacher, the place where I had learned one of my most valuable lessons about helping children with behavior problems. It was a lesson that symbolized a child's need for love and self-esteem—but that is getting ahead of the story.

Going back to that time, I recall that my professor had assigned my class to observe in elementary classrooms. I was to be with Mrs. Brown's first grade class.

The professor had given us all check sheets to record our observations and verbal instructions for marking them, but I was still scared—afraid that I would not see what I was supposed to see. Exactly what I was supposed to see, I did not know. My fellow students seemed equally vague about our purpose.

With pencil and paper in hand, nevertheless, I sat in a corner of Mrs. Brown's room, looking as hard as I could, anxious to observe some special secrets of teaching and learning. My eyes came to rest on Mary, who was larger than most of the children. Later I saw on Mrs. Brown's records that she was repeating first grade.

As the days passed, I noticed many things about Mary: that her desk seemed too small for her angular body, that her clothes never seemed right—one day they were too big, the next day, too small. Wrinkles were always evident, and what seemed to be a favorite blue sweater had all the buttons missing.

In spite of her unkempt appearance, I was drawn to Mary. She was a pretty child, with naturally curly hair—the kind I had always wanted. Unfortunately, it was seldom brushed. Her eyes were bright and flashing—some-

times friendly, sometimes mean. On cold mornings, her chapped cheeks looked almost as if she had gotten into her mother's rouge.

Mary couldn't read very well, but she drew beautiful pictures, and I saw her slip them onto the teacher's desk.

One day I happened to be observing at recess, and I saw Mary give her meat sandwich to a stray dog. I wanted to commend her for that, but I pretended not to notice because she yelled, "I dropped my sandwich." Still I knew what she had meant to do, and I was glad.

Some days, however, I would hear Mary say threatening things as she walked a few steps behind the other children. If anyone laughed, Mary seemed to be pleased.

For weeks she seemed to torment one student in particular, a girl named Jean. I even saw her knock Jean down and then pretend she had done so accidentally.

After that happened, I watched Mrs. Brown talking to Mary with her arm around her. I remember wondering why Mrs. Brown didn't do something more drastic.

Looking back on my own school days, I remembered my teachers' taking immediate action against such offenders. That had certainly seemed right at the time.

Then the holidays came, and I forgot about Mary. When I returned to the classroom, she was wearing the same blue sweater she had worn all year. When Mrs. Brown wasn't looking, some of the children made fun of Mary's clothes. That afternoon when I went to say good night to Mrs. Brown, I found her busy with Mary and a package.

On my next visit, Mary had on a different sweater, which appeared to be new, and her hair was brushed that day. She was smiling. Her eyes were bright and happy.

But it was not to be Mary's day after all. The mother of another child, Betty, called, and the principal delivered a note to Mrs. Brown that said Mary had been picking on Betty on the way home from school. I sat back to see what Mrs. Brown would do this time.

Just before the dismissal bell, I heard her ask, "Mary, will you be able to stay a few minutes? I've got a lot to do and I need help."

"Yes, Ma'am," Mary grinned.

Out of the corner of my eye, I saw Betty's face brighten as she got her books ready to go home.

But another day, as three o'clock drew near, I saw a mean-eyed Mary mutter something under her breath. I also observed the frightened face of Jean. I looked to see if Mrs. Brown noticed. As the bell rang, Mary smiled unpleasantly, again, and Jean hung back as Mary ran out the door.

Then I saw that Mrs. Brown was getting ready to go out. She called to me, "I'll be back in a minute. I have some things I want to go over with you."

I peered out the window and raised the sash a bit. Sure enough, there was Mary, standing on the playground and waiting for Jean, who was walking very slowly in her direction.

Then Mrs. Brown appeared, and Mary looked up at the teacher, chewed on the corner of her lip, and shivered. Mrs. Brown knelt down, put her arm around Mary, and smiled just as she smiled when she was very happy in the classroom. She brushed back a lock of Mary's hair, and I heard her say, "My, your hair looks pretty today. I want to tell you before you go home." Then she spoke quietly, still smiling at Mary. She buttoned Mary's sweater up right.

Quite often Mary looked away when anyone talked to her, but this time she looked right at Mrs. Brown, blinking her eyes rapidly. I again picked up what Mrs. Brown was saying, "I know I can count on you, Mary." Then she hugged Mary and waved goodbye.

I waited for Mrs. Brown. I wanted to ask her about Mary, but I didn't want to admit I had listened. Anyway, I noticed that she was smiling as if she saw something I couldn't see, so I said nothing.

Some days later I saw Mary and Jean eating lunch together. After school they went off, laughing and talking.

Then it was Valentine's Day. Everything in Mrs. Brown's room seemed to be covered in lace and red hearts and cupids. The children had decorated individual mailboxes for themselves.

All the children put valentines in one another's boxes. I distributed mine too; for some reason, I "mailed" the prettiest one I had to Mary.

After the other children had read all their valentines, Mary reached into her box and pulled out her last one. It was so big and so pretty that the children murmured "Oh's" and "Ah's" when they saw it.

It was truly the most magnificent valentine of the day. On the inside under the verse, the sender had printed in big letters, "Dear Mary, I love you," but whoever it was had not signed the card.

Mary let the other children hold the card and smell it. It had a delicate fragrance, which they liked. Mrs. Brown smiled approvingly.

In the days that followed, there seemed to be something different about Mary. Her hair was brushed; her "new" sweater was buttoned. She had a ribbon in her hair, and her shoes were shiny.

There was more. Mary smiled a lot and offered to help Mrs. Brown. She read aloud with more expression, and Mrs. Brown called on her often.

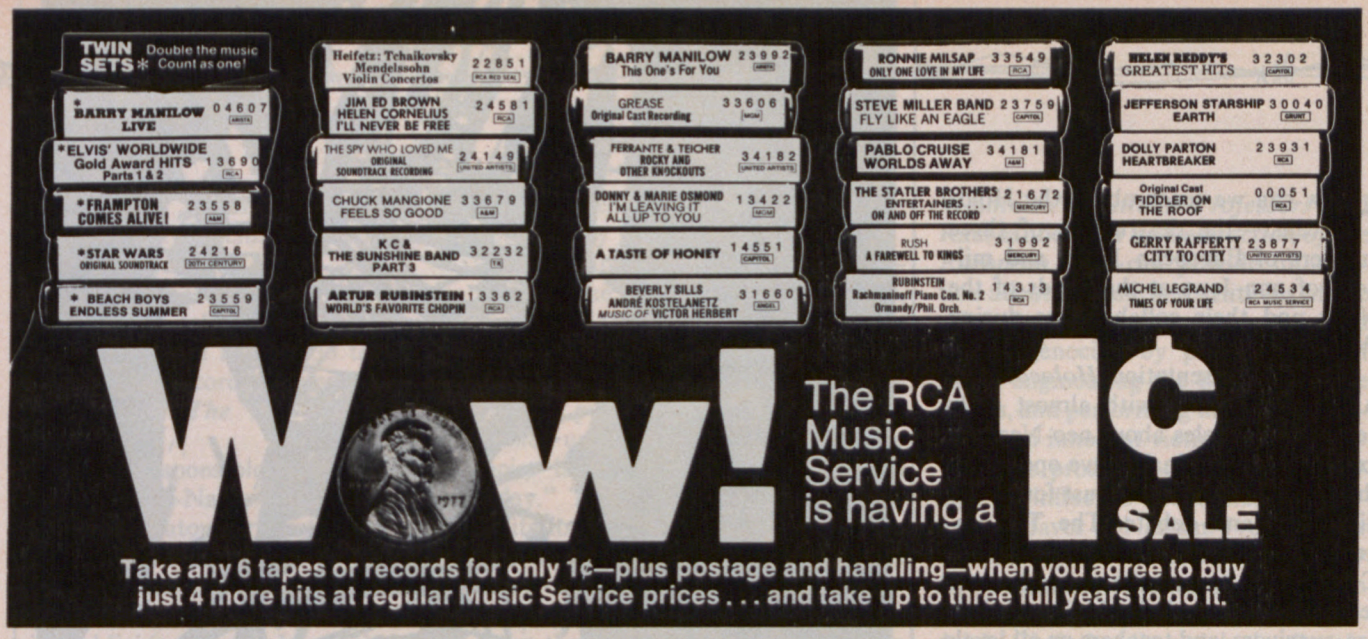
I never let Mrs. Brown know that when I was in the card shop buying my valentines, I saw her buy the big valentine Mary had received. I had been curious about why she was buying such an expensive card.

I hoped Mrs. Brown knew I was getting the lessons she was teaching me. We never discussed them.

At the end of our classroom observation course, the professor asked, "What was the most significant idea that you have gained from this course?" I responded, "Teachers must be sensitive to the hurts and needs of children. Children respond more positively and learn in a more effective fashion in such an environment." I did not explain about Mary and Mrs. Brown. At the time, it was not an easy story for me to tell.

Over the years, I have shared bits and pieces of the story with preservice and in-service teachers in various ways, but it has been many years since I thought of the details.

Not until I walked into the reading classroom that morning and saw the large girl with the big valentine on her desk did I remember the story as it had happened. That is what stirred my memories and prompted me to wonder whether this reading teacher also had studied with Mrs. Brown. □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Teaching About the HOLOCAUST

How can we teach about the Holocaust—the destruction of three quarters of European Jewry and millions of non-Jews at the hands of the Nazis and their collaborators during World War II?

The TV presentation *Holocaust* in April 1978, along with almost daily newspaper articles about neo-Nazis or ex-Nazi war criminals, have opened up the subject of the Holocaust for public discussion and debate. The TV program will be repeated later this year. Conferences and seminars on the subject have attracted theologians, scholars, survivors, and teachers on all levels and from many disciplines. The education community is reexamining the questions of how to teach about the Holocaust and to what end.

Five years before Gerald Green's original TV portrayal of the Holocaust, however, the social studies teachers of Monument Mountain Regional High School in Great Barrington, Massachusetts, were grappling with the same question. During the summer of 1973, we created what we believe to be the first long-term unit on the Holocaust for high school students in the United States.

The eight-week unit, "Society on Trial: A Study of the Nazi Holocaust," became a required unit of study for ninth graders. Soon several other school systems published guides for similar curriculums: Philadelphia's *The Holocaust: A Teacher Resource*; Brookline, Massachusetts' *Facing History and Ourselves: Holocaust and Human Behavior*; and New York City's 461-page *The Holocaust, A Study of Genocide.*

Teachers who have carried out these various units in their classrooms have discovered that they need to find answers to several procedural questions. The following exploration of some of these questions may help other teachers avoid the stumbling blocks that the subject can create.

By ROSELLE CHARTOCK
Social Studies Teacher, Monument Mountain Regional High School, Great Barrington, Massachusetts, and coeditor, The Holocaust Years: Society on Trial.
The illustration is from the book.

How can I narrow the gap between the knowledge and resources I have readily available and the knowledge contained in newly published documents, books, and news items?

This gap is a particularly great hazard for experienced teachers who use the same materials every year. One need only look at the list of fiction and nonfiction about the Holocaust published since 1970 to know how easily such a gap can occur. Our department's list of current books on the subject includes nearly 100 publications copyrighted in the last two years alone.

Because there is so much for teachers to choose from, they must examine the materials and select from them carefully in order to present their students with readable, accurate, and well-documented accounts. The best way to shorten the list is for teachers to secure or prepare up-to-date, annotated bibliographies for themselves (and for their students) and also to read, or at least skim, current book reviews and news stories about the Holocaust.

Here are three examples of useful new materials—a book, an article, and a film.

• *The Survivor,* by Terence Des Pres, includes a new compilation of earlier testimony. This source binds together the feelings and experiences

of more than 50 survivors and offers some original conclusions about the structure of survival.

• Germans are now more willing than before to talk about their memories of the period from 1933 to 1945. Daniel Lang recorded some of their comments in *The New Yorker* in 1977.

• Those responsible for seeking the identities of ex-Nazi war criminals and their collaborators are gathering evidence daily. A 14-minute film, *Judgment at Mineola,* documents what has happened to an accused Nazi war criminal living on Long Island since he came to this country from Latvia in 1951.

The question about preventing a gap in knowledge, then, is not easily answered. To take advantage of such new resources as they become available, teachers must spend a lot of time and hard work in research.

How do I help my students maintain the caring and concern they had at the beginning of the unit after they have studied the subject for several weeks?

To absorb information about the Holocaust in great amounts can dull the sensitivity of both teacher and student in the same way TV news programs made daily bombings in Vietnam seem normal by bombarding us with human suffering each evening. What would be worse than not teaching about the Holocaust at all would be teaching about it without constantly bringing to it the grief and shock that are appropriate.

Inadequacy in this regard—in part due to frequent interruptions by advertisements—may have been the prime mistake of NBC's first *Holocaust* presentation. The commercialization of horror was one of the aspects of this program that Elie Wiesel, perhaps the most eloquent and respected writer on the subject and himself a Holocaust survivor, criticized in the *New York Times*. The program, he said, "tries to show what cannot be imagined. It transforms an ontological event into soap opera. Whatever the intentions, the result is shocking. Contrived situations, sentimental episodes, implausible coincidences: If they make you cry, you will cry for the wrong reasons."

Everything Wiesel said about *Holocaust* is true, commented Joseph Papp, director of the New York Shakespeare Theater, but he also said, "I cannot dismiss [the program's] impact on the general public. . . . The series has opened up on a broad front the entire racist issue and its meaning to us today." To dismiss *Holocaust* for its limitations is "to deny its effect, however small, on Americans who haven't heard of the Holocaust at all. . . ."

Many of the students I talked to about the drama echoed both Wiesel's and Papp's views. As one boy put it, "I wasn't as shocked as my mother was, because I already knew about what happened after studying about it for seven weeks. But the program really helped me to summarize all I had learned. The only problem with it was that it didn't show how terrible the Holocaust actually was!"

In our classrooms, we can plan to avoid the shortcomings of the TV presentation. One way to retain students' attention and sensitivity throughout the unit is to stimulate discussion from more than just the historical frame of reference.

Students can gain insights about the abuse of technology and government control from literature—for example, George Orwell's *Nineteen Eighty-Four*. Examples from German mythology can help them understand influences upon German thinking and values that prepared the way for the idea of an Aryan super race. The class can study philosophers' ideas about human nature by reading excerpts from John Locke's *Treatises*, a seventeenth-century work based on a belief in the goodness and reason of humanity, and Niccolo Machiavelli's *The Prince*, which takes the opposite view.

Psychologist Viktor Frankl describes the mental processes by which he survived the dehumanization of the concentration camp in *Man's Search for Meaning*. Erich Fromm in *Escape from Freedom* and Gordon Allport in *Nature of Prejudice* help students reflect on why many Germans submitted to Nazi propaganda and why the Jew was chosen as Hitler's scapegoat. Max Weinreich's *Hitler's Professors* and Raul Hilberg's *The Destruction of the European Jews* can provide information about the role and attitudes of the scientific community who participated in the genocide by preparing lethal gases, engineering the building of the camps, and performing medical experiments on innocent victims.

Artists produced posters and paintings to influence the minds of Germans in favor of Nazism. *Propaganda: The Art of Persuasion—World War II*, by Anthony Rhodes, sheds light on the artists' perspective, as does Rudolph Chelminski's article in *Smithsonian*, "West Germans Screw Up Courage To Show Nazi Art."

Using material from several disciplines can imbue students with the perplexity and sense of tragedy which are fitting reactions to the Holocaust. In this way they can maintain an intense level of concern and attention over a course of study several weeks long.

How can I counter the despair my students may feel when they are exposed to an evil which threatens their belief in the goodness of humankind?

Many of my students began to wonder whether it was really possible for people—for them—to resist certain forms of evil. It's not an easy question to answer in the affirmative because, in fact, relatively few Germans or Jews resisted—though in many cases they may have had good reasons for not resisting.

However, students can learn about the stunning examples of resistance by both Jews and Christians that did take place. The film *Denmark, '43*, for example, tells the story of Danish Christian resistance. Out of 7,700 Danish Jews, 7,200 were saved from being rounded up and killed by the Nazis. A bishop in Denmark had said, "God's law must be obeyed over man's." The Danes recognized that had they instead of the Jews been marked for slaughter, they would have hoped for such sacrifices from moral human beings.

Inge Scholl describes how young German students risked—and many lost—their lives by resisting Hitler in

Students Against Tyranny: The Resistance of the White Rose, Munich, 1942-1943. Bea Stadtler's *The Holocaust: A History of Courage and Resistance* documents the actions of many intended victims of Nazism who resisted in the camps, in the ghettos, and as members of partisan groups. Elie Wiesel has expressed quite simply what these and similar books can teach students: "History has for 2,000 years been trying to force us to give up faith in God and faith in man, and we shall continue to say, 'No. No one will ever succeed.' "

How can teachers avoid the numerous stumbling blocks that the subject can create?

Can role-playing and simulation games help students understand the Holocaust?

Simulation games based on the Holocaust are now appearing on the market. Most of them were designed by teachers, who evidently wanted to help students understand the feelings and roles of the participants and victims of the Holocaust.

A rabbi and two teaching associates, for example, designed the Gestapo Game, which gives players an opportunity to risk their lives or their values—e.g., income or job, pride, family, home, or religion. Harold Schulweis, a rabbi and teacher, has described the Gestapo Game in *Moment* Magazine. "The object of the game is survival. One of the authors commends the game as a novel and 'exciting' way of teaching about the Holocaust. She concludes that the air of life or death is ever present as fellow players, one by one, 'lose' their lives during play. 'Few survive.' And few did."

Schulweis does not question the motives of the creators of the Gestapo Game. He does, however, express serious reservations—which I share—about the morality of the means employed and about their consequences. Certain students may be bright and perceptive enough to know the difference between the game and reality; others may not.

In *No Substitute for Madness,* Ron Jones, formerly a teacher at Cubberley High School in Palo Alto, California, discusses the outcome of a comparable project. He had carried out an experiment in fascism to help his students understand the Nazi experience of discipline. He told the people in his class they were to be known as members of the Third Wave. They had their own salute, banner, and set of rules.

Then 200 students not in his class requested admittance to this new order, and many students began reporting infractions of Third Wave discipline. Jones realized he had lost the balance between role playing and directed behavior.

When youngsters can easily be brought to adopt fascist attitudes and to carry out nearly any order, the implications of such psychological games are dangerous. The objective is worthy—for students to realize that many of them might have made good Nazis; that all of us have the capacity for goodness and evil; and that to prevent other Holocausts, we must recognize this capacity. But, as Jones makes clear, there must be limits to how far we carry the game.

Teachers who don't want to lead a simulation game on the Holocaust can use a film to acquaint their students with the role-playing experience and what it demonstrates. In *Eye of the Storm,* a midwestern elementary school teacher pits her brown-eyed students against her blue-eyed students, giving each group in turn preferential treatment so that both come to understand the devastating effects of prejudice.

When is a child ready to learn about the Holocaust? How can we teach this difficult material to slow learners in the high school?

One of my colleagues once said, "I can't teach the subject to students who can't even read the books. They won't be able to understand the concepts either." We cannot use such excuses for teaching the Holocaust to some students and not to others. The concepts of totalitarian control, prejudice, obedience to authority, nationalism, and individual responsibility are understandable in terms even the fifth grade and the slow ninth grader can comprehend.

Teachers can relate nearly all of these ideas to the students' everyday lives. Students know there are certain consequences if they disobey a parent or the law or even the informal rules within their team or their group of friends. They are constantly making decisions about whether to obey these authorities.

Many have had their sense of responsibility tested in school when taking an exam and deciding whether to cheat. When one student physically attacks another, the others present must decide whether to walk away, watch, call for help, or take steps to stop the fight. And what student, however young, won't admit to either having been a victim of prejudice or having discriminated against another without good reason?

To neglect teaching certain students about the Holocaust because they are only 10 years old or because they are "slow" is extremely dangerous. Many sources show that young children and slow learners were among the most obedient of Hitler's supporters.

Books on a fourth- to sixth-grade reading level do exist. In *Night,* Elie Wiesel tells about his concentration camp experiences and the dilemmas he faced. *Friedrich* and *I Was There* by Hans Peter Richter both reveal the Holocaust through the eyes of adolescents. Yuri Suhl protrays aspects of the resistance movement in *Uncle Misha's Partisans.* H. Volavkova in *I Never Saw Another Butterfly* reproduces drawings and poetry by children in the Terezin concentration camp. These are only a few of the books written at a relatively unsophisticated level.

Attitudes are formed in early adolescence—some psychologists say even earlier. If a goal of the curriculum is to

help shape good citizens—democratic, tolerant, and just—perhaps we should begin teaching about the Holocaust in the upper elementary grades. Some administrators, on the other hand, have argued that even the ninth grade is too early for students to handle this unit.

Wherever one stands on this question, two things are clear: readable material does exist for 10-year-olds, and by the time students reach high school, little can be done to change the attitudes toward authority and the stereotypes they have formed.

How do I teach the Holocaust as a unique tragedy without neglecting the most important task—to bring my students to the point where they can perceive the similarities between the Holocaust and other historical situations?

Teachers will need to develop their own answers to this question. Students must see the Holocaust not only as a tragedy that engulfed the Jews in Europe during World War II, but as a product of a part of human nature that could be sparked in many places and times, wherever and whenever certain conditions are present.

Scapegoating, racial persecution, and genocide have always been a part of human history. The time and place could be twentieth-century South Africa or fifteenth-century Spain. The instance could be the genocide which the Turks perpetrated on the Armenians during the early days of World War I or treatment of the Indians in the United States.

Concerning the Holocaust itself, many people are unaware that along with Jews, the Poles and Russians—in fact all Slavs—Gypsies, dissenters, and the physically and mentally handicapped were objects for extermination. True, the Nazis' main obsession was the murder of all the Jews in Europe, and they were swift and methodical in carrying out this "final solution to the Jewish question." But six million non-Jews also perished under the efficient machinery of the SS and their collaborators.

Henry Friedlander, history professor at Brooklyn College and scholar of the Holocaust, tells teachers, "You cannot teach it as a moral lesson . . . so particular that no one else can use it."

To set the Holocaust totally apart from other examples of people's inhumanity to one another is to prevent it from being a "lesson and a warning for public discussion as well as an integrated part of our school curriculum," said Professor Friedlander at a conference on the Holocaust.

At the same time, teachers must keep the uniqueness of the Holocaust before their students' minds. Never before this murder of six million Jews had such persecution been carried out with such calculated cruelty on so large a scale and with so much technological expertise. However, students can learn the real lesson of the Holocaust only if they see parallels between it and other instances of human oppression. They can only begin to understand the Holocaust when they recognize that they, too, could have been the silent German or the innocent Jew.

In October 1978, about 400 educators and theologians from the Federal Republic of Germany, Israel, and North America met in Philadelphia for the first International Conference on the Lessons of the Holocaust. Teachers and school administrators from 35 U.S. school districts discussed in workshops the right and wrong ways to teach the Holocaust, textbooks and audiovisual materials that are available and used in the classroom, and teachers' responsibility to teach this segment of world history to their students. The conference proceedings can be obtained for $5 a copy from the National Institute on the Holocaust, Box 2147, Philadelphia 19103.

New York and Baltimore are two of the larger school systems which have Holocaust programs in the elementary, junior high, and senior high school levels. Philadelphia has a full curriculum on the Holocaust in its secondary schools. Many other cities, including Detroit, Cleveland, Los Angeles, and Chicago are in the beginning stages of introducing Holocaust studies into their school systems.

The Federal Republic of Germany just mandated that ninth and tenth grade students take a four-part Holocaust course, while Israel began Holocaust courses two years ago. In the German Democratic Republic, the lessons of the Holocaust have been taught since the school system was established. There the subject receives greatest attention in a two-month unit in the ninth grade. □

What can I do to keep students from forming stereotypes of Germans or other national groups whose members helped perpetrate the Holocaust?

German-American, Polish-American, and other groups have expressed the fear that Holocaust units will turn public opinion against their whole national group. After the TV presentation, many of these people asked school systems teaching the material to send them copies of their curriculums.

Teachers have been explaining to such groups that one of the most important ideas they transmit—and one which the TV *Holocaust* illustrated—is that one cannot fairly stereotype any group, be it Jews, Germans, Poles, Arabs, or Italians. Both the program and the curriculums mentioned here reveal that some Germans, Poles, Russians, and others actively collaborated with the Nazis; some were silent out of fear and for other reasons; and some risked—and often lost—their lives trying to hide Jews or help them escape.

Citizens have the right to question what students are learning in the schools. However, teachers must not be pressured into suppressing the facts about a gruesome historical event so that those responsible for crimes appear flawless.

Educators have the obligation to continuously evaluate their own objectives, activities, and materials. If they find they are teaching ideas which stereotype any group, they must exclude these ideas from the curriculum without excusing the guilty from responsibility for their actions.

I have taught the unit "Society on Trial: A Study of the Nazi Holocaust" for five years. The questions I have discussed here have been in my mind when I reassess my work. The longer I teach about this subject, the more questions I have about the Holocaust and about the methods I am using to teach it. Few topics leave us with so much uncertainty and so many unanswered questions. Nevertheless, I hope we never stop asking the questions and examining the answers. □

Early Immers

One day last spring, shoppers in a supermarket in northeastern New York were intrigued by a class of six- and seven-year-olds on a field trip: the teacher spoke only French, and the children spoke both English and French.

"Are these children from Montreal?" somebody asked. The answer was unexpected. "No, they are local children. But they're in their second year in the French Language Immersion Program at the Campus School at Plattsburgh State University College."

In 1976, the Campus School began offering a French immersion program to prekindergarten and first grade pupils. Now the oldest of these children have reached the third grade, and about 30 children and two teachers are in the program. We plan to extend the French immersion option, a year at a time, until these children finish eighth grade and graduate from the School.

We at the Campus School decided to teach French through immersion because experience and research of Canadian educators have shown that early-immersion language learning provides benefits that traditional methods do not. Through early immersion (at ages four or five), children learn a foreign language while they are more receptive than they are later. Furthermore, the second language is the *medium* of instruction and not the *object* of instruction. This pedagogy contrasts sharply with traditional pedagogy, in which the foreign language is generally not used as a medium of communication.

Children in early language immersion situations learn a second language in much the same way as they have learned their mother tongue—through such experiences as the supermarket field trip. They learn it through using it in their daily school activities, not through conventional methods like translations, audio-lingual practice, and grammar lessons.

To see how this technique of natural acquisition works, observe Owen, who sings a song in French and taps his feet at certain lines. Watching him, his father asks, "Owen, how do you know when to tap your feet?"

"Oh, Daddy, I just know."

"But which word means *feet*?"

"I don't know. I just know to tap my feet when the song says, *'Tape les pieds, Tape les pieds, Tape-les avec moi.'* " Owen does not need word-for-word understanding to carry out the activity that the phrase calls for.

An immersion teacher produces an action and at the same time introduces verbal instructions for that action, and repeats the process often. Within a few days, the teacher no longer needs to demonstrate the action—foot tapping or whatever—since verbal instructions alone bring forth the activity.

During the first year of language immersion at the Campus School, the children begin to understand most of what is said to them in the second language—which is everything necessary for teaching and classroom management in a normal school setting. We have all observed the same phenomenon: toddlers a year or two old understand many of their parents' directions but do not verbally respond to them because at this stage children comprehend but cannot yet express themselves in speech.

After several months in the immersion program, children will often use the same sentence structure that two-year-olds use in learning the mother tongue. Two-year-olds often say, "Me hungry," "Me go bed," "Me miss you" instead of using the subject pronoun "I." Similarly, children in the first and early in the second year of immersion seldom say "*Je.*" Instead, they will say "*Moi est sage,*" "*Moi va là,*" "*Moi fait ça.*"

They also use only the present tense for a long time. They understand the past and future tenses when the teacher uses them, and these tenses do not confuse them, but they find it more convenient to use the present themselves, probably because it is more common.

Some linguists believe that children learn their first language because they have established a bond of trust with a mother figure through natural interactions with her during their first two years of life. During the early stages of immersion, a similar bond should be established between teacher and child so the child will begin to speak spontaneously with the teacher.

Gradually, as the teacher speaks only the new language, children begin to associate the teacher with that language. They will speak in a mixture of native language and new language, in

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ion in French

our case French. The teacher substitutes the second-language words, and the children slowly acquire them and use them later.

The children do not usually talk to one another in the second language during the first year, however. They use their native language during most daily activities outside the classroom.

The use of mixed languages continues longer among children than between teacher and child, because the teacher is able to answer completely in the second language, whereas other children cannot. In fact, children seem to associate the teacher with the second language and other children with the first language. For example, Chris commented in French that his teacher had had her hair cut, but made the same observation about a classmate in English. This suggests that Chris could use both languages, but he identified French with the teacher, with whom he had established a bond. It would take him a little longer to do the same with another child.

On some occasions, a child understands a second language better than the first. When a bakery clerk asked Jackie in English whether she wanted a bag for her cookies, she got a befuddled look on her face. The clerk repeated the question, with the same result.

At this point, the immersion teacher asked the question in French: "*Tu veux un sac*?"

Jackie's face lit up, and she immediately answered, "*Oui*." Jackie was more familiar with the concept of a bag in French than in English.

In a situation like this, a good teacher listens carefully for more examples

Here's How We Do It

At Four Corners Elementary School, a public school in Montgomery County, Maryland, we practice French immersion in a somewhat different way than does the Plattsburgh Demonstration School.

Before parents enroll their children in the program, we describe the considerable pressures we place on our students. For one thing, children can enter our program at any grade from one through six, and teachers do not speak English in the classroom. By midyear, all the children's classroom conversation is in French (with each other and their teacher), regardless of whether a given child has started in a class of beginners or joined an established group of children.

We insist upon this because we must produce good results in subject matter. We feel that having the students stay totally in French in class will hasten their acquisition of French and thus give them more ability to learn more complex and abstract subject matter in French sooner.

We find that our first-year students use past and future tenses naturally. Unlike the Demonstration School, we give no special importance to the bond between teacher and child, other than the normal concern for good teacher-student relationships.

Admission of students in upper grades to our program has been an administrative necessity and interesting to watch. These older students seem to lag in subject matter achievement for three or four months, until their comprehension of French is established. However, like any children who enter an immersion program, they are placed in a situation where to survive as students they must listen carefully in order to learn—and they do. They also acquire substantive fluency in French after two or more years.

Researchers at McGill University and the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education have measured and reported on such results of immersion as mastery of subject matter equivalent to that in regular classes; acquisition of substantive fluency (defined as the ability to think, speak, read, and write) in the target language; and at the end of five years, higher IQ scores and math scores for the immersion students than for others. We have also observed greater increase in the listening skills of our immersion children than in those of other students.

Subject matter materials in the target language and in-service training are the two largest expenses in setting up an immersion program. The cost for teachers' salaries is about the same, because classes must be taught whether they are immersion classes or not.

Five public school systems in the United States now offer immersion classes, and a number more are establishing them. Another elementary school in our system has started Spanish immersion.

Anyone interested in more information is welcome to write to us for our immersion handbook for teachers or for further references. Our address is Four Corners Elementary School, 325 University Boulevard West, Silver Spring, Maryland 20901.

—**Gabriel Jacobs,** *principal, Four Corners Elementary School, Montgomery County, Maryland.*

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of this type of exchange in order to capitalize upon what the child says spontaneously. Then the teacher can reinforce the child's acquisition of the new language by providing occasions for the child to repeat and use words and phrases in various ways.

When children ask questions in the native language, the teacher can ask them to repeat them in the new language. A child who needs information will gladly repeat the question and receive the answer in the new language. Our experience with six- and seven-year-olds in the second year indicates that after the following process is repeated five to seven times, the child automatically asks the question in the new language:

- Child questions in native language.
- Teacher repeats question in new language.

> The second language is the medium of instruction not the object.

- Child repeats question in new language.
- Teacher gives answer in new language.

The key to success in immersion teaching is most likely careful observation of the natural speech of children. Encouraging them to use the new language for thoughts and actions that are important to them will make immersion learning more effective and the learning of new language more enjoyable and profitable.

One question people often ask about language immersion is, Do children translate? In a way they do, but not as we adults think of translation. When the teacher says something in the second language which confuses some children, another child will usually observe this and explain the situation in the mother tongue. She or he may even help a classmate formulate a request in the second language. Here, too, necessity causes children to express themselves in the second language.

An illustration. Children sometimes need to have their thermos flasks opened because the lid is on too tight. Nearly every day one child who was relatively new to the class asked the teacher in English to open the thermos. At first the teacher opened the thermos, accepting only "*Merci*" in French. After a few days, however, the teacher said "*non*" to the request.

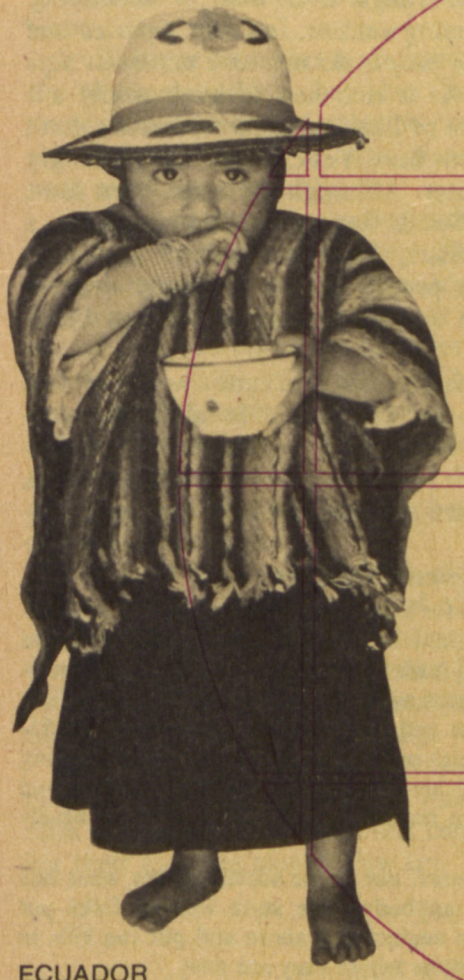
A pupil who had had a whole year of French then helped the first child formulate the request in French: "*Est-ce que tu peux ouvrir ça*?" Since then the child has always made the request in French. He has also helped others learn how to make this same request.

This illustrates how children understand or learn routine phrases in the second language that they need. A little later children ask: "*Est-ce que tu peux ouvrir la bouteille*?" or "*la boite*?" simply because they have acquired the structure. The teacher does not have to teach structures; children learn them as they speak every day. The teacher uses the process of repetition described earlier, and after five to seven repetitions, children automatically use these sentences in the new language.

The immersion language experience at the Campus School is total until late in the second grade, when we introduce English as a language arts subject. After that, we will be teaching more and more subjects in English until we are teaching half the subjects—including some which require reading and writing—in each language. This balance is necessary if children are to continue to grow in both languages.

It will eventually be necessary for us to face the question of continuity of second-language instruction for students after they leave the School at the end of the eighth grade. As an independent school, we cannot expect to have direct influence over the courses offered by the high schools they will attend. In school systems that include both elementary and secondary levels, however, it is crucial that successively higher-level immersion courses be offered to students in their second language. To offer anything less would be to waste a part of these students' potential. ☐

JUSTICE FOR CHILDREN EVERYWHERE



ECUADOR

It is a small national and world house we live in, and the United States' response to children in the International Year of the Child (IYC) should be an example to all our neighbors in this house. Although we are proud of our number one status as a world military power, however, we have not been so consciously concerned about our status as a world social leader. At the beginning of the Year, then, it is fitting that we look at some of the world's social deficit and at our own.

First, let us consider the things children need, here and elsewhere.

Education. *In developing nations, more than half the children are not in school.* The Children's Defense Fund (CDF) reported in *Children Out of School in America* (1974) that 2 million school-age children were not in school in the United States. We found that most of them were out, not by choice, but because they had been excluded or neglected by school officials. Far greater numbers of children are technically in school but benefit little or

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By MARIAN WRIGHT EDELMAN
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not at all. Sooner or later, they may become frustrated and drop out.

These children are legion. They are non-English-speaking children who sit uncomprehendingly in classes conducted in English. They are the learning disabled children whose problems have not been diagnosed or have been misdiagnosed, or who have been placed in unsuitable classes where they do not learn.

They are the poor White and Black children in rural areas and inner cities who are labeled dumb and so are expected to graduate from high school reading at an elementary school level. They are children whose clothes are inadequate, or who don't have enough money to buy textbooks or to pay school fees or the cost of transportation. They are pregnant, too bright, not bright enough. They are, also, too many of the 3.6 million American children up to the age of 21 who were identified in 1977 as needing special services related to education. In too many schools all over the United States, children who are different are not treated fairly.

Health. *The ratio of infant deaths to births in the poorest countries is 20 times higher than in countries with well-developed health programs.* Fourteen countries have lower infant mortality rates than the United States. The infant death rates for Black children in relation to those for White children are higher now than they were 25 years ago.

Ninety-five percent of the children born in the developing world are not immunized against the common contagious diseases. In the United States, 20 million children under 15—almost 40 percent of all children—are not immunized against one or more of the major childhood diseases we know how to prevent. An estimated 10 million American children get virtually no health care. The largest federal health program that provides funds for the detection and care of children's health problems reaches fewer than one-fourth of the 13 million children eligible for Medicaid.

Income. *The poverty of the 2.5 billion people in the world's poorest countries is staggering. The contrast between their average per capita income of $250 a year and that of an American is like night and day.* But millions of children within the United States are still so poor, they feel as if they live in another country. More than 10 million, or 17 percent of all American children, live in official abject poverty; this makes them the most disproportionately poor age group in this country—even poorer than the elderly.

The younger children are, the poorer they are. In 1976, 18 percent of all children under three and 17.4 percent of all children ages three to five were poor.

Project Head Start, the only federal comprehensive child care program for our neediest children, reaches only about 20 percent of those eligible. More than 1,000 communities and almost 1.5 million children lack the services of Head Start.

Food and water. *Hunger is chronic for millions of children in developing nations. In Latin America and Africa, 1.4 billion people do not have access to safe drinking water.* As a rich and technologically advanced society, we're likely to assume that we don't have these problems here. Yet children still go hungry in the United States. Although there has been some progress in the South during the last decade as a result of Head Start, food stamps, and Medicare, many community people say it's a toss-up whether conditions should be called better or just less horrible.

Aaron Shirley is a doctor who runs a neighborhood health clinic in rural Mississippi. He told a *Washington Post* reporter recently "that 25 percent of all children that the clinic sees for the first time have worms, that 20 percent are anemic, and that most are malnourished."

The reporter describes the interview:

He then reaches for an autopsy report of a five-year-old girl. "She died in June of secondary pneumonia, brought about by a bacterial infection caused by worms in her intestine." Dr. Shirley goes on to say, "After that little girl died, our clinic went out and built a privy and installed a 55-gallon barrel of water on that land. We got clean drinking water and got the other kids on the [feeding] program and helped comfort the mother in her grief. She was nearly destroyed.

"A few weeks later, our clinic social worker went out and couldn't find anybody. The state welfare folks put Momma in jail for neglect and abuse and put the kids in foster care. God knows where they are now.

"Here was a Momma doing all she could. Everybody knows the symptoms for Ascaris worms—'a cold and a runny nose'—are not the kind that would lead you to a hospital. Instead of reaching out to find these poor rural people with no privies and no water, the welfare answer is to punish the Momma and to take the children away."

Children without homes. *There are homeless children all over the world.* In the United States between 500,000 and 750,000 live away from their families in facilities ranging from individual foster family homes and group homes to large institutions. Far too many of these children are unnecessarily or prematurely removed from their homes before anyone has tried to work with or provide services to their families. Tens of thousands have been placed in inappropriate facilities for long periods of time, often away from their communities and even out of their states. They are shunted around frequently—denied permanence, loving attachments, the chance to trust and be nurtured by continuously caring adults. They languish in twilight, neither returned home nor provided a permanent new family through adoption.

Why, you will ask me, don't their families do something for the children with all these troubles? After all, it is their responsibility to see that their children go to school, see a doctor, and drink decent water.

I will answer you that most families want and often try to do something, but they frequently lack the access, confidence, information, and power to deal alone with the range of institutions whose help they need in raising their children.

We have held too long to the romantic notion of the "typical" American two-parent family with a male wage earner and a mother who stays at home to care for two children. This stereotype represents only 1 out of every 16 American families today. It ignores the families of the 29.0 million children whose mothers worked outside their homes in 1977, the 9.2 million single-parent families, which are disproportionately likely to be poor; the 5 million families which have at least one child with a physical, mental, or emotional handicap.

It also ignores those hundreds of thousands of children who don't have homes of their own and the millions of teenage parents, themselves merely children, struggling to raise another generation of our young. And even a "typical" family can be too poor to care for its children without help.

But it is not just poor or minority or single-parent families that need help. How many upper-middle-class or upper-class families feel confident about raising their children alone? Few try. They have all the help that professionals and housekeepers and nursemaids can give. Even so, how many can exercise effective control over what their children see on television or eat?

Though the poor child frequently shares the helplessness of an unemployed parent, the higher-income child often feels the relentless pressure on the parent who is a high-powered corporate executive or lawyer or professor or government official preoccupied with his or her own brand of survival. Too often the demands of the work place have encroached on the needs of the family.

If our country is committed to the family's remaining the basic childrearing institution—and we have not yet invented anything better for children than parents—our attitudes and policies must catch up with the fact that millions of American families need various kinds of help at different times for various reasons in trying to raise their children well.

Several barriers stand between the needs of children and the resources to help them. We have denied many children the chance for a decent life because we have been afraid that the government would take over families and dictate the values by which our children are raised. But the issue is not whether government is to interfere; government already affects family life, often badly. Our job is to stop government from hurting children, from breaking up families. We must encourage it to develop a procedure for making policy on the basis of sound data, so that it can begin to ask

OUT OF THE MOUTHS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

Throughout this feature appear revealing quotes from foreign students in public schools in the United States. Their observations about life and school in this country and in their home countries help illuminate the conditions of life for middle class young people around the world and reveal something about the stimulating nature of youngsters everywhere.

Joanna Davidson, fourth grader, from England: Teachers are more strict in England than in this country, but school isn't much different. Teachers in England talk more in class than they do here, and since I like to talk myself, I prefer the class discussion method of teaching I find in this country.

Anna Christakis, fifth grader, from Greece: Greek schools are very strict, and we have to go from 9 to 1 six days a week. Parents in Greece are also strict, but many of them take their children to the beach on weekends during the summer.

Our daily schedule is different in Greece. We go home from school at 1 and have lunch. On our way home, we sometimes buy ice cream or chocolate, even though our parents think it may spoil our lunch. From 3 to 5, everyone takes a nap. Then we wake up and play and eat dinner. And then there's homework!

I think teachers expect too much from children in Greece. I like schools here better. The Greek schools are about a year ahead of schools here, it seems to me, but the Greek teachers push the children too hard.

Gilles Evert, fourth grader, from Holland: In Holland, we have movies and other audiovisual machines in class, but the teachers do most of the talking. Then we have to take tests and tell the teachers just what they've told us. In my spare time, I ride my bike, and life is very much as it is in this country.

Valentina Pagaliaricci, seventh grader, from Italy: I picked up English when I first came to this country, and the teacher and the kids helped me a lot. There was no way for me to communicate with them unless I spoke English. So I was forced to learn the language. I attended an ESOL class for two hours a week. The class was of great help to me. After seven months I went into regular classes, but I continued with the ESOL for some time.

I found life quite different here from what I had known in Italy. For example, I was amazed at all the movies shown in my classes in elementary school. We didn't have such things in Italy. We had assemblies with occasional movies but no movies in the classroom. I thought they were doing it for me, because it made learning so easy.

By the Italian way of teaching, you

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how key budget and policy decisions will affect children and their families.

Some people fear that pushing to expand children's rights and meet their needs will divide families. This is nonsense: the best way to help 98 percent of our children is to help their families. And after all, the main importance of families is that they raise children.

At any rate, our established fiscal patterns undercut families. We pay the most per year to institutionalize a child; the next highest amount, to place a child in foster or group care (in many states, more to nonrelatives than to relatives); the least amount, to keep a family intact through our welfare system.

For us and for our children and for the nation, the growth of millions of ignorant, unhealthy, neglected, and abused children who would like to share in what we have will have staggering effects. Consider that these young people will grow up rejecting the institutions that rejected them and distrusting the adults who distrusted them. If we think education, health care, and family support are expensive, let us watch the costs of ignorance, untreated illnesses, and family breakup.

Equally staggering, to me, is the nation's acquiescence in the suffering and neglect of its most vulnerable young and the absence of compelling leaders to speak for them.

Martin Luther King, Jr., personified the active insistence on justice that caught up the Black college student of my generation. In the best tradition of a people who have never been able to take anything for granted, he left to those around him a heightened intolerance for human suffering. He left them, too, a renewed commitment to finding a way to right wrongs even when there is no way, to grasp the vision of a United States free of racial and class discrimination.

He, along with Robert Kennedy, had faith in the nation's ideals and a capacity to care and to act on that caring whatever the cost. These men had a capacity for moral outrage that is lacking today among too many of our leaders and policymakers.

The decade since we lost them has seen a fading of their vision for a decent United States and world and a shrinking of their legacy of leadership, while the problems they took as their own have not disappeared. We who remain cannot stand, in the presence of hungry, uneducated, homeless, and unhealthy children, pining for lost leaders. Each of us in our ways with what we have where we are must develop the capacity for moral outrage and commit ourselves to standing up for something beyond ourselves.

How can we help?

THAILAND

First, we can reject the common rationalizations for doing nothing.

- I'm no match for the bureaucrats.
- Why bother? It'll all go back to being as it was before I started.
- I've already done my bit. I'm going to get mine.

Great injustice has been tolerated under these and other excuses that we're all familiar with. Each is an abnegation of personal responsibility for one another, for our children, and for our nation. If every Black person and White person had adopted this attitude towards slavery and then segregation, we'd still have both. If every woman who wanted the vote had given in to the odds against her at the turn of the century, we'd still be disenfranchised. If Jane Addams, one person, had given in to despair in the face of the horrible conditions of child labor and immigrant poverty in Chicago in her day, who knows how much more human suffering would have continued?

Second, we need to be strategic and specific. If we try to take on the whole world at once, we simply get overwhelmed and fail. But if we break down the big problems of injustice into manageable pieces for action, we can build big victories on little ones. Conversely, small injustices or denials often add up to

large patterns of neglect which hurt many and erode the basic purpose and performance of institutions.

Third, we can inform ourselves about what the people around us need. Homework is a key to effective change—uninformed, we will not save the world.

Fourth, we can recognize that it is not enough to be personally decent if we ignore the broader causes of the needs of others. It is not enough to give the shirt off our back to a shivering child if we still vote as a Congresswoman or City Councilman against appropriations that would relieve the poverty behind that child's lack of clothing. We must open our eyes and hearts and skills to the needs around us and scrutinize the performance of institutions as we change our individual efforts and attitudes.

Fifth, we must persist. I am sick of hearing how nothing is worth doing and how nothing works and how we don't know what to do, all around Washington and all over the country these days. We know what millions of children need, and we know how to meet those needs. We can feed all our hungry children and provide them decent health care. We know that families are the best things children have, and we can take steps right now to ensure that every child has a permanent family. What is needed is commitment from citizens and leadership from policymakers and political and religious leaders.

I often think about Sojourner Truth, a lone woman who lacked freedom both as a Black and as a woman, but who relentlessly raised her voice and used her body to challenge injustice, whether it was refusing to get off a whites-only trolley or giving an antislavery speech. During one of her speeches, a man yelled out something like "Old woman, I don't care any more about what you're saying than a flea." Sojourner snapped back, "That's all right, but the Lord willing, I'll keep you scratching."

We must begin to make our leaders scratch all over the nation. Enough fleas can make even the biggest dog mighty uncomfortable. If they flick some of us off, but others keep coming back, we will begin to make headway on behalf of human needs and justice.

Sixth and finally, those of us who choose to be both parents and workers must struggle for balance and connection between those roles. That is, we must broaden the traditional concept of good parenting.

This is very hard to do. There is a thin line between trying to save the world's children and neglecting my own. But I also believe that I cannot neglect the world's children and save my own. It's important to give my children my individual attention and love. It is also important to teach them that the world has problems that we as individuals must and can respond to. Through our example as parents, we can share with our children a constructive involvement in grappling with human needs. Then when they leave our homes, their national family and world—from which they cannot hide or run forever—will not shock them into retreat or denial.

Let us, therefore, determine to leave our children a legacy of belief and confidence in themselves and in something beyond themselves—in our country, in justice. □

This article is adapted, with permission, from Mrs. Edelman's 1978 baccalaureate address at Russell Sage College, Troy, New York.

International statistics are taken from *World Military and Social Expenditures, 1977,* by Ruth Leger Sivard; U.S. statistics from CDF's reports, analyses, and documentation based on a number of data sources.

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learn a lot if you study and pay attention. If you don't like to study, then you may prefer the American style of teaching, because it involves you more with what you're doing and it motivates you to learn.

In Italy, we didn't have what you call social promotion. However, if you failed to pass a grade, you had a chance to take all the tests again the next fall just before the start of school. If you passed, you would then be permitted to enter the next grade. If you flunked too badly in the spring, however, you wouldn't be able to take make-up exams in the fall.

Sometimes we'd stay after school to study. In that case, we'd bring our lunch to school, but usually we'd have lunch at home. And we never ate peanut butter and jelly sandwiches, even at school. Yuk!

I'd like to get all my friends here and take them all to Italy, or bring all my friends from Italy over here. It would be interesting to see the different cultures and the way people are really different.

Take my friend Susan in this country, for example. She's okay, but she doesn't really, really, really care about anything. That seems to be typical of kids in this country. They seem bored with everything. Perhaps they are spoiled by too many things—money, clothes, candy, soft drinks. Parents here seem to give their kids anything they want, so they don't appreciate or care about what they have. Parents give them anything but their time.

I hope to come back to this country to visit after my return to Italy. But I'd rather live in Italy, because I like the way people are over there. They are warm and friendly and vivacious. You can't even *speak* Italian without being vivacious!

In Italy, you're not as much left on your own as you are here. People care about you and help you there. There are not as many snobs in Italy as there are here, and I think most kids feel happier and more secure there than they do in this country.

Marjorie Gordon, twelfth grader, from Jamaica: The young people in Jamaica are much better disciplined than the students here, although they are getting worse. Children here argue with their teachers. They still don't do that back home. They don't chew gum or eat in class. Here I see students talk back to teachers. They wouldn't do that back home. If students are unruly, they

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WHAT IT'S ALL ABOUT

An interview with **Jean Young,** *chairperson, U.S. National Commission for the International Year of the Child.*

Taking responsibility for the U.S. observance of the International Year of the Child (IYC) seems like a natural job for Jean Young, whose husband, Andrew Young, is the U.S. Ambassador to the United Nations. She has had experience both with children and with international matters. As an educator, she has taught in Hartford, Connecticut, and in Atlanta and Thomasville, Georgia, where she was a member of NEA and its affiliates. She has coordinated elementary and secondary programs in Atlanta and helped set up Atlanta Junior College.

What did you teach when you were a classroom teacher?

Well, my major was elementary education, and I have taught first grade, second grade, third grade, and then in the middle grades.

After that I worked as a reading specialist with classroom teachers who were teaching in the middle grades and then with classroom teachers in the high school, because we discovered that children in secondary education had so many reading problems that classroom teachers really needed a background in teaching basic reading skills. Then, as a coordinator of elementary and preschool education, I worked both with classroom teachers and directly with the children.

At the junior college level, I taught classes in reading—again. That was like starting the cycle over, but now my students were in higher education. Of course, the techniques were vastly different, but the basic need was still there—and that's rather incredible.

Let's talk a little bit about how you got into international affairs.

I guess my first experience goes back to when I was in college. During my junior and senior years, I went to Austria and worked in an international work camp. Most of the work camp experiences were working on rebuilding—maybe a community center that had been destroyed during the war or a church. But there was one camp for children from Eastern Europe who had become refugees because their families were German. I chose that one, because I wanted to work with children themselves.

We conducted a marvelous camp, with a real camp recreation program. We did arts and crafts. I even read stories to the children in German. I spoke no German, and they spoke no English. They would just get hysterical because they were familiar with the stories and they would listen to my accent and enjoy it thoroughly. We'd take them swimming, too, and generally provide good, nice contact for them, because they were isolated in the refugee camp with nothing to do, and large families were crowded in small rooms.

That was my initial contact with anything international. Through the years, I kept up a peripheral interest, but it was really only expanded upon when my husband was in Congress. He traveled to South Africa and met the Black leader Robert Sobukwe, and two of his children came to live with us. Now they're away at college. That was another sort of international experience.

Then when my husband became Ambassador to the United Nations, this afforded me an opportunity to visit a lot of countries, and I always request to see the schools and social institutions. So I have had an opportunity to get a feel for the educational programs in various countries.

What about the U.S. observance of the International Year of the Child—specifically the U.S. National Commission? What kinds of people have been appointed to the Commission?

Well, the idea in selecting the Commission was that it would represent the United States. I am very excited about this group of people, because though we have a few who are known nationally, most of them were selected only because of their intense dedication to children—the work that they had done was with children. We have tried to cover every area, from law

to education to health to various social services.

In addition, they come from all parts of the country and from various ethnic backgrounds, and they come from cities and from rural areas. To me, the group is just a tremendously exciting, diverse group. They represent what the country is all about and bring together this vast amount of experiences, and the common strand is a deep concern for the needs of children and how we are going to respond to those needs.

Have they selected goals—what they want to see this Year do for children in this country?

We have developed goals in seven different issues—child nurturing, education, health and nutrition, juvenile justice, impact of alienation and discrimination, individual development, international concerns, and the impact of media. We have developed fact sheets on each one of those issues.

We are taking questions that people are raising, and we are designing a matrix people can use to analyze their own community. Take immunization. We have a little sheet people can use to look at immunization within their own community. First they ask, How many children are not immunized? Okay. Of those who are not immunized, where are they? What are the reasons that they aren't? Who should have responsibility? What are the barriers against full immunization? What kind of resources do we need to draw on to overcome these? This provides a framework for people to take one little problem and really deal with it on the community level. Then we hope to have all kinds of resources they can call upon.

We know by knowing Americans that you cannot stand at the top and hand down decrees, that you've got to present the issues and allow people to work through them and come to their own conclusions, and then you know you have a sound base on which you can develop your policy. If we need some new legislation, that will emerge from these kinds of discussions. So we want to have this going on in every part of the country and on every level.

And we have the cooperation of hundreds of national organizations like the National Education Association, the League of Women Voters, the Y's, and the Scouts. All of these organizations are serving on an advisory committee to the Commission, and they are getting in contact with their own constituencies. So we are distributing our framework for action through all of these groups, so that we can get everyone involved in the process.

Also we have input from children. We have organized—it's not a committee, because it includes so many children—a mechanism so that we can hear and reflect on what children are thinking. Whenever possible we want to involve children in the whole process.

We are doing a mass media campaign certainly, letting people know about the Year and what it's all about. We may have one or two national goals that we want people to become involved in. But we know there are many issues and many different groups with issues they're concerned about, so we're trying to create a mechanism whereby various groups won't just be taking potshots at the problems, but there will be some unified efforts to resolve them.

What kind of IYC projects would you suggest for a state or a local teachers association?

One of the things that we have discussed, that we perhaps will develop a little more as the Year goes on, is an assessment for the children to use in their own communities. It's looking at the community through the eyes of the child, but in conjunction with some group that is able to change things in the community. The children would look at their own society, but they would have the people who are really in power to express their concerns to, and it would be a sort of working together.

Children might say, "Well, in our neighborhood, we counted 90 kids on such and such a street and the nearest playgound is 15 blocks away from that neighborhood, and last year there were five accidents." They could find those kinds of statistics from sources or else gather them by simply going out and looking at their own community. It seems to me that the teachers could be very, very helpful with this kind of project.

Another thing that teachers can become involved in is exposing children to other cultures. Having festivals and learning experiences in the classroom that are also fun for the children is a good way of imparting knowledge and also having children learn to enjoy and appreciate children from very different kinds of cultures.

The U.S. Committee for UNICEF has some teacher's packets and teacher's materials for the Year and a resource library that teachers can write to get information.

Also—I think that the teachers associations can reach out and join hands with community groups that might not seem to be related to education and assume together some special responsibility for the child. Improving the relationship between the parent and teacher, I think, pays off in the learning of the child.

Now I am talking with community groups and encouraging parents in ways to be more supportive of the schools and of what's going on in the classroom.

And, of course, a teachers association also could take up any of these other kinds of things, like health care.

They could simply work with the other organizations that will be working in a particular area. The Red Cross, for example, has been very active in the

immunization program. We have Red Cross chapters in a lot of our schools. We know that if children are healthier they're going to be in a better position to learn.

Teachers cannot do it all—although we have sometimes expected them to—but they still have to be involved.

What about the international aspect of IYC?

Many regional conferences are being planned—there's a European conference, an Asian conference, probably an African conference—and the participants will learn about what other people are doing, sharing ideas.

Also, an international secretariat has been formed in UNICEF to help different countries share papers, share ideas, share activities with each other.

Also, some of the European countries are selecting a Third World country that they want to devote their efforts to, so there will be matching up of countries and projects and sharing throughout the year. We know that we can learn from many of the other countries, and we think there are people who will learn from us.

Will there be an exchange of information on children in different countries, too?

Yes, we certainly hope so. The World Bank, as their contribution, is pulling facts and figures about children from all over the world and putting together an atlas to be shared by all nations. That's something that teachers associations might get and study.

Is anyone planning an exchange of information on the level of the children—so that a child here can find out about what it's like to be a child in some other country?

Well, we've been talking to any number of children's magazines and newspapers about this very idea and sharing information with them. The *Weekly Reader*, for one, is doing a special on the Year and is devoting some of their issues to what will be going on in various places.

Take, for example, the extraordinary opportunity you had, with the Sobukwe children living with you, to find out about what it's like to grow up in South Africa under the apartheid system. Is there any opportunity for children to get this kind of information?

We have the opportunity to do some documentaries, and we've been suggesting ideas for it. That will be one thing. Then a children's television program on Sunday mornings—*Marlo's Magic Machine*—has budgeted some activities. They will visit various countries and talk with children and show how children are living in other parts of the world.

We intend to do more of that kind of thing. We take education about people in other parts of the globe very seriously. We think of education as one way of creating understanding, and we want people to feel responsible for each other. We hope that out of the awareness and the education, funds will be generated to support certain projects in other countries or to help some of the children who are in need.

At the end of the year, will you be suggesting things teachers can do to keep this kind of education going beyond 1979?

Oh, yes. We see this one short year as an opportunity to begin a process of developing even more awareness—because if you look at some of the documentaries and projects that are being done now on child abuse, drugs and children, preteen pregnancies, you know a lot of people are already concerned. What we hope to do is pull all the needs together in a pattern so we can begin to look at how we resolve it.

Our final document will describe what we have done, what we feel is being accomplished, and what we see in the future. We certainly don't intend the effort to end in 1979. We think it would be a failure if that happened.

The Declaration of the Rights of the Child will be having its twentieth anniversary in 1979. How much do you think children in the U.S. actually exercise these rights that the United Nations thought were important?

Well, as I went down the list of rights, I said, "We have to work on each one of these." Then I got to one where I said, "Well, we don't have a problem with that—at least that's one I can scratch off." That one said, "Every child is entitled to a name and a nationality."

Then I began to think. I began to think about children who are classified as illegitimate. I began to realize that when U.S. citizens abroad marry someone there, their child's citizenship will be in danger. I realized that there was not a single right that we could claim completely. Even if we say, "a right to free education"—well, we have compulsory education and it's available. But if I define education, I mean *to become educated*—if some children are not becoming educated by attending school, then what we have is free schooling and not free education.

So there was really not a single right that we could say we were home free on. We really need to look at each one very carefully and try to live up to it.

Have you seen any countries that could set examples for us on some of these rights?

Well, you know, different things come from different countries. One right is the right to love and affection and understanding. I think we could learn something about how families care for each other. Sometimes when you go to some of the third-world countries, you see the way people embrace the children and care for them, and the uncles and the aunts and the whole family regard children as the most wonderful thing that's happened. I feel a little envy of this

kind of outgoing affection toward children, this touching and feeling and embracing. In that respect, I think that we could learn from these countries.

Then in some of the Scandinavian countries, you go into some of the buildings and you find that in the elevators, rather than the buttons all going up, they go across, so the children can reach them. So it's building a concern for children into the buildings that I think we could learn from them.

In terms of the rights, there's not a single country that's perfect, that's doing all it should be for its children. We have certainly the finest country in the world, and yet we know that we are not doing all we should be to respond to all of the needs of all of our children. I just think we can learn from each other.

That seems to tie up what the whole Year is for. But what is your personal idea of what should come out of the Year?

There are two things I would like to see happen. I'd like to see people feel better about children—to see us wanting to enjoy our children and share with them and just watch them grow and marvel at it. Sometimes we get so harried, the problems get so great, that we really forget the beauty of it all.

Then I'd like to see something very concrete, something I can measure, something I can say—that, for example, in '78, 40 percent of the children were not immunized and in '79, it was only 5 percent. The Secretary of HEW, Joseph Califano, talks about wiping out measles, for example, by 1982. To me that's a marvelous goal, and I think the International Year of the Child can rally the kind of support that can make it something everybody wants to accomplish. I would like to see a measurable kind of achievement.

And I think if those two things happen, I would be content. □

For more information or materials on the International Year of the Child, write or call—

National Commission on the International Year of the Child
600 E Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20004
Billy Press is the staff contact for elementary and secondary teachers; Helen Schierbeck, for college-level teachers.

United States Committee for UNICEF
331 East 38th Street
New York, NY 10016
(212) 686-5522

United Nations Association of the United States
300 East 42nd Street
New York, NY 10017
(212) OX7-3232

or NEA International Relations.

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are spanked, or they are suspended or expelled.

Children here have too much excitement, and they become blasé. Eventually they care about very little; everything becomes boring. They become tired of life. What about all the suicides among young people in this country?

One thing that bothers me in this country is that I can't see any sign of Christianity here. Isn't it supposed to be a Christian country? At home, we observe the Sabbath. At school in Jamaica, we have devotions in the morning and before lunch and before we go home. Before we go to bed at night, everybody comes together as a family to pray. This observation of religious concern affects the way people feel and act towards each other. It results in more closeness and warmth among all the people in a community.

Hang Y. Tung, tenth grader, from the Republic of China. If you want to go to high school from junior high school in China, you have to pass tests. If you fail the tests, you have to stay in junior high. However, the next year you can take the tests again. Teaching methods are about the same as here, except in most schools English is not taught.

After school hours, many students go to farms to work. There are no child-labor laws in China, so any student strong enough can look for a farm job for after-school work to make extra money. The high school students who don't have after-school jobs go bike riding or play ping pong or volley ball.

Nguyen Dang, ninth grader, from Vietnam: Four years ago, I came from Vietnam to live here with my uncle and get an American education. I was chosen because I am the oldest boy in my family. Although I knew I was lucky to be in the United States, I was terribly homesick, and it took me a whole year to get over it.

Of course, I disapprove of some things that go on here—the way kids hang out in gangs, smoking and wasting time, for instance. Also, it seems to me that Americans ought to expect more of themselves. People in Vietnam work harder and try harder.

Gustavo Vasquez, twelfth grader, from Guatemala: Schools in Guatemala are quite different from those here. Classes often have 40 to 60 students. The school day goes from 8 to 12, then after a long lunch period, classes resume from 2 to 4. In the evening, students face long hours of homework.

Life in general is more regimented for young people in my country. Parents expect to be obeyed, and fathers use physical punishment when sons don't behave. High school students have dates and go to school dances, but are seldom unchaperoned.

Teachers are strict and are much respected. They have considerable status in the community but do not receive high salaries. At present, our country has an oversupply of teachers.

Kyung Sik Chu, eleventh grader, from Korea: In my homeland, students feel

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TODAY'S CHILDHOOD—

The care and education of children have always been problems for societies as well as for individual parents and teachers. This is partly because the work is difficult and partly because of the low status generally accorded to those who work with children, compared to those who work with money, power, ideas, or a combination of these.

Each time and place, however, has its own problems with respect to the care and socialization of the young. The status and treatment of American children have been affected by changes in their relation to the rest of society, in the structure and functioning of the family, and in adult sex roles, as well as in other social relationships. This article describes some of these changes and their effects.

A review of U.S. American history reveals that at different times we have held quite different views about the child. In the early days of our country, every able-bodied person was a much-needed source of labor, the majority of the population were children, and idleness was a sin. By the age of six or seven, then, most children were either sharing in the activities of their parents or working as apprentices and servants in the households of other people. In Plymouth Colony, there was a surprising amount of "putting out" of children at all social class levels. A child who was put out would receive room and board and some form of instruction or training in return for assistance in the home or workshop. Research suggests that in the colonial period the relationship between parents and children was marked by reciprocal obligations but considerable ambivalence.

Most children worked hard at an early age right through the first half of the nineteenth century. At the same time, however, many children were learning reading, calculating, and other skills at a very early age. At the height of the "infant education movement," around 1840, about 10 percent of all Massachusetts children under the age of four were enrolled as regular students.

By SARANE SPENCE BOOCOCK
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In the mid-nineteenth century, however, the wide acceptance of child labor in the home or workshop, the extensive practice of sending one's children away to work in other people's homes, and the precepts of infant education came into conflict with the newer ideas of Pestalozzi and others. These innovators felt that the young child's place was in the home where he or she should be given playthings rather than books and writing materials. Because of the rise of this "cult of the home," by 1869 children under six had all but been removed from the formal school system.

The growth of industrialized cities after the Civil War also brought increased recognition of the special needs of children. For the first time, U.S. Americans were faced with large numbers of children who did not belong anywhere in society. Accounts of the period, such as Jacob Riis' *How the Other Half Lives* (1890) and *Children of the Poor* (1892), include descriptions of swarms of unattended, often homeless children roaming the streets of New York and other cities.

The visibility of these vagrant, mistreated, and delinquent children coincided with the development of social science, with its analytical tools for defining and analyzing social problems. Influenced by both of these factors, legislators and others interested in the welfare of children initiated child labor laws, compulsory school attendance, and agencies and institutions devoted to the protection of children.

The twentieth century has been characterized by the elaboration of childhood as a special period in the life cycle and in education. In 1974, the report of the Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee pointed out that—

The American [educational] system has steadily changed its character from elite to mass, first at the elementary level in the nineteenth century, then at the secondary level in the first half of the twentieth century, and now in higher education in the years since World War II. . . . The countries of Western Europe moved seriously toward universal secondary education only in the 1950s and 1960s and to the edge of mass higher education only in the last several years. Thus, American schooling has been characterized by a relatively high rate of participation that has made it the first national system to establish a secondary school as a universal framework for the experiences of early

A UNIQUE CONDITION

adolescence and the first several years of college as a formal setting looming ever more inclusive for later adolescence and early adulthood.

One important consequence of defining childhood as a special period (or as a series of special stages) is that the child is not expected to make any real contribution to the productive life of the community. According to Halbert Robinson's analysis of *Early Child Care in the United States of America*, child-rearing manuals focus—

. . . on the individual child, his "self-realization" through "self-discovery" and "self-motivated behavior." While other people are to assist him in this process, they are not to get in his way. As for the question of the child's obligations to others—especially to those not his own age—the training manuals are strangely silent.

Separation from the workaday life of the larger society is a quality that U.S. American children share with children in developed countries generally. It distinguishes them, however, from some children in such contemporary societies as Israel. There kibbutz children tend gardens and animals from a very early age, and during the Six Day War, elementary school children in Jerusalem took on such community responsibilities as mail delivery and garbage collection. Similarly, in the People's Republic of China, elementary school workshops turn out machine components for buses and other heavy equipment and all schoolchildren spend a portion of each year in some form of productive labor.

Beatrice and John Whiting analyze the process by which children become cut off from the larger society. They compare the lives of children in African agricultural settlements with lives of children in the new African cities. From the age of three, village children help in the gardens, carry wood and water, and help with the herding. They often have full responsibility for the care of younger siblings while their mothers tend gardens or look after their herds—work that may take the women away from the village for several hours a day. The Whitings observe that compared with children from more complex societies, these African village children—

. . . are more responsible and nurturant to others, more concerned with the welfare of the family, less egoistic in their demands.

There is no indication that this type of labor overtaxes the child. At that age, between three and eight, when children are so eager to play the role of adults, they are permitted to do so and are made to feel that they are important contributors.

When African families move from the village to the city, life changes for both mothers and children in significant and not always favorable ways. In the city house—

The children are underfoot. They ask questions about the city which their mother cannot answer. There are none of the numerous relatives, old and young, at hand to share in social interaction with the children. There are no animals, baby cousins to tend, gardens to weed, and animals to feed, and other tasks to keep them busy and make them feel adult during the years from three on. . . . The hired caretaker, be it a relative, older sibling, or local person, is not educated and not able to introduce the children to the world of symbols—books, crayons, paper, etc., to replace the world of plants, animals and relatives. . . . We have not as yet done systematic observations in many homes where the mothers work seven to eight hours a day, but I expect to find them as hectic as many of the homes of working mothers in the U.S., who live in cramped quarters with inadequate help and return home tired after a day's work.

Changes in the family, such as the increase in the probability that a mother will work outside her home or that a child will be living with just one parent, have in fact changed what it is to be a child in the United States. Let's examine some of these changes and what they mean.

First, today's household has fewer children than its predecessors and is less likely to contain people not related by blood. This small nuclear family has certain advantages for children's intellectual development. Although research results have not been uniform, firstborn children and children from smaller families probably have greater intellectual capacity or better intellectual performance than others. Recent declines in the birth rate and in fertility mean that as time passes, an increasing proportion of U.S. American children will be firstborns.

Second, the care of young children requires full-time availability but not full-time attention and action. Thus, it is most efficiently carried out in a

place where other activities are taking place—such as the North American home during the colonial and frontier periods.

There is no evidence that homes in the past were consciously organized for the care of children—in fact, children were less likely to be considered full human beings worthy of love and care and less likely to be humanely treated than they are now. The economic and other functions of the home, however, required an organization which ensured that a number of persons were available to share in looking after children.

Most of these functions have been lost to the family. In addition, the closing of the frontier, the decrease in the proportion of the population engaged in farming, and the separation of the home from the workplace have ended much of children's economic usefulness at home. The enactment of compulsory education and child labor laws has limited their ability to bring home earnings from outside and has also ended the possibility of arrangements outside the home, such as live-in apprenticeships, that relieved parents of some of the burdens of child rearing. At the same time, the costs of raising children have gone up steeply. Raising children, then, imposes greater economic burdens than in the past.

Finally, although being a parent has always been difficult, and recent historical research on the family indicates that parents have always gotten out of as much of the work as possible (for example, by delegating it to older children), raising children today may create more stress than in the past.

For one thing, in most areas of our society young people have no chance to discover what is expected of parents before they actually take on the role. In Sweden and other societies, boys and girls from the elementary school years on have classes in sex education, home maintenance, child care, and the dynamics of family life. By contrast, U.S. elementary schools offer little practical education in subjects relevant to family life.

Our small nuclear families and increasingly age-segregated residential communities, furthermore, do not allow potential parents opportunities to observe young children or to communicate regularly with older persons who have had extensive experience as parents. The birth of a child thus constitutes an abrupt transition rather than a gradual assumption of the responsibilities of a new role.

In addition, the responsibilities and skills involved in caring for young children are increasingly incompatible with other things adults value, both within and outside of marriage. Certainly the self-development that is an important component of an individualistic society is at variance with the constant attention and the frequent selflessness required in the nurturance of

NIGERIA

babies and young children.

Indeed, recent surveys indicate that the presence of children has a negative rather than a positive effect on husband-wife relationships. Members of childless marriages report greater marital satisfaction than those with children. They in turn report less marital satisfaction, the more children they have. On a variety of marital satisfaction indices, moreover, satisfaction drops sharply with the birth of the first child, sinks even lower during the school years, and goes up markedly only after the last child leaves home.

A final source of tension in parenthood today is the unresolved, even unrecognized, conflict about what roles are appropriate for men and women. As women come to think more highly of themselves, they will probably be less willing to perform the tasks in the society that bring less prestige, including the more tedious aspects of child care. Many no longer feel that they should be solely responsible for the day-to-day care of young children.

Research on fertility trends and attitudes indicates that most women will continue to have children, and that many of those who have them will derive rich rewards from raising them. Signs have appeared, however, that more and more women consider motherhood an option rather than the only way of life for a normal woman.

The ideology about the role of the father, too, seems to be changing in modern societies. A wide gap remains, however, between the talk of a more active, equalitarian role and the way fathers actually behave. Nor do we have the institutional arrangements that would allow—and motivate—men to become more active as fathers. Despite the changing attitudes of women and the relatively unchanged ones of men,

however, babies still need care 24 hours a day from the moment they are born.

Childhood and adolescence in the United States today are more distinct from other stages of life than in less industrialized societies or in our own society in the past. Young people are cut off from the larger society, especially from contributing to the productive life of the community. Ironically, too, as we have become more aware of the needs of the young, many adults have become less interested in spending time, money, and other resources on them—school bond issues are one example. Many parents are having trouble giving their children basic care, and many adults are choosing not to become parents at all.

The nature of childhood in the United States of the future will become clearer as we face these facts and the questions they raise—questions like, Who should be responsible for the routine care and supervision of children? How can the young be better integrated into the larger society? Underlying these, however, is another, more serious question: What is the value of children in the United States? □

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TANZANIA

A PROFESSIONAL CONCERN

In this International Year of the Child, many organizations in the United States are giving special attention to issues that affect children. These children's issues are real. Many are new or newly identified; others have been shrugged off as unsolvable for so long that we now tend to retreat from the challenge they present.

Because children are at the center of our work, we educators and our professional organizations have a special opportunity and responsibility to take our efforts beyond simple public awareness activities. We are in an excellent position in the community to form new alliances and revitalize old ones to meet the challenge of children's issues.

In the Pennsylvania State Education Association (PSEA), we are looking for ways to help assure children the rights set forth in the UN's Declaration of the Rights of the Child. We hope our ideas will be useful to other teachers and their associations.

The right to affection, love, and understanding. Consider the problem of abused children. In the United States, the figures are as ugly as the problem: an estimated one million children are abused or neglected each year, and as many as 2,000 children die under circumstances which suggest maltreatment.

Because teachers are often the first to be aware of this problem, they are well-placed to identify and perhaps prevent child abuse—providing they receive support from school authorities and the community. In a growing number of places, because of new federal and state legislation, teachers, physicians, social workers, and others are mandated to report child abuse.

What more can teachers do? In York, Pennsylvania, professionals, parents, and others have formed a Committee for Parent Effectiveness (COPE) that works to protect children. COPE has sponsored the formation of several Parents Anonymous groups for parents who abuse their children but want help in controlling their behavior.

The right to love, understanding, and affection extends into the classroom. When a child's behavior makes him or her hard to understand, parents can often help.

"The importance of broadening the old, often underused, teacher-parent connection is crucial," says Pat Pisaneschi, executive director of the Luzerne-Wyoming Youth Services Commission. The Commission is one of eight in Pennsylvania formed under new state legislation supported by PSEA. "Many parents had unsatisfactory experiences in school themselves," Dr. Pisaneschi explains. "They are the ones we have to involve, because often they are afraid to have contact with the schools or teachers, creating many second-generation problem students."

The right to adequate nutrition and medical care. Some school lunch programs have been allowed to deteriorate. We now have the irony of programs promoting children's nutritional well-being existing side by side with school vending machines. Situations like this challenge educators, parents, and other community groups to form alliances to assure nutritionally balanced lunches to students. This kind of community action gets results, and teachers need to be aggressive in pursuing those results.

Dental hygiene programs, school health services, school counseling, and home and school services all are related to children's health. Constant cutbacks in budget and reductions in staff limit these services. We need to form coalitions, now, to show the community that these are the type of services that children need and must have.

The right to free education. Free education is not simply a matter of free public schools. Children must have access to education appropriate to their individual needs and ages, including more than custodial care for the very young.

The need for a unified approach to all programs involving the young child is becoming more evident daily. A PSEA task force that studied this problem has found that what is needed is not the present uncoordinated efforts at custodial care for a small

By NANCY M. NOONAN
Martin L. Murray Heights Elementary School, Guidance Counselor (on leave), Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania; and Vice-President, Pennsylvania State Education Association.

fraction of needy children. Ann Baldwin Taylor of Carnegie-Mellon University, chairperson of the PSEA task force, believes that "the educational component of existing early childhood programs must be upgraded." Full early childhood services—including suitable instruction—should be available for all young children.

The right to full opportunity for play and recreation. In Pennsylvania, teachers in some districts have been active in planning for badly needed community recreation facilities. Our professional organizations should take the lead in identifying such needs and organizing our communities to take action on them. Our professional expertise and concern, properly directed, can make a difference in these efforts, and our work will show that teachers' interests are not bounded by the classroom walls.

The right to a name and nationality. Individuals are unique in that they have a given name and a distinct cultural heritage. It is this simple and yet sometimes overlooked point that we can recognize and promote in an educational environment. A student's self-image needs to be a positive one, and teachers are important image-makers.

The right to special care, if handicapped. The lesson of P.L. 94-142, a well-meant law that led to a debacle, is now visible to all. It remains the strongest case I know for professional educators and their organizations' getting out into the community and into action. Children, whether handicapped or not, who are served in a diluted educational environment are not served well. If the advocates of that legislation had understood, in practical terms, the kind of funding it needed, less disruption might have occurred. Teachers groups, working with other citizens organizations, can help create such understanding.

The right to be among the first to receive relief in times of disaster. We hope that we will not have to assert this right during this Year. In Pennsylvania, however, within the last seven years major disasters have followed hurricanes and flooding. When these disasters struck, members of teachers organizations worked hard in their own communities and as volunteers in others and brought to their efforts a sensitivity to the special needs of children.

The right to learn to be a useful member of society and to develop individual abilities. In our country's increasingly technological postindustrial society, the lack of adequately funded and available vocational education programs is a national shame. Because this area of educational neglect is clearly documented, teachers organizations can make a good case for support for such programs from the business and industrial community.

The right to be brought up in a spirit of peace and universal brotherhood. The attitudes of teachers in their classrooms often help form students' ideas of what is right. Teachers who believe that peace and brotherhood are important show this by their treatment of their students and by their expression of ideas and use of materials. Teachers can also show this belief by working with groups in the community that are dedicated to promoting civil equality, international understanding, and world peace.

INDIA

The right to enjoy these rights, regardless of race, color, sex, religion, or national or social origin. Minority children, handicapped children, children whose mothers work, young people who need to learn useful work in which they will be able to find employment—the difficulties that face all of these groups in the United States point clearly to a national agenda of incomplete work on behalf of children.

In Pennsylvania, we are using the Year of the Child to call attention to PSEA's traditional role as a strong advocate for children.

We have been identified and recognized as a powerful lobbying force. Last year a new school subsidy law, Act 59, largely written and fought for by our association, was adopted. The public must be remind-

ed, however, that the cause of children's rights is as important to us as the cause of teachers' rights. PSEA was instrumental in forming a coalition which secured passage of a state statute setting up—and funding—county child welfare agencies. This work—not on a school issue, but on a child issue—was quickly forgotten by those who call us a special interest group interested only in promoting our own welfare.

During the Year of the Child, we are putting together a strong group of legislative proposals benefiting children. This emphasis is not new. We have long attacked the problems that many of the proposals would solve. This year, however, is the time to demonstrate that teachers organizations are an aggressive force on behalf of children and their rights.

Among these proposals are programs for exceptional children and funding for such programs already on the books. Some of our other concerns are proposals to upgrade training of vocational-technical teachers; proposals to provide transportation for physically defective children who attend school far from their homes; mandates for universal kindergarten and for programs for handicapped preschoolers; and programs to provide dental hygiene services, school counseling, and home and school visiting programs.

PSEA is also working closely with the state committee for IYC. Part of our contribution will be in public relations, providing radio, TV, and newspaper materials on children's concerns.

To help our members bring about meaningful programs for children, we have prepared a special action kit for local associations. Local leaders across the state have taken part in a series of intensive training programs on community action. They learned ways to identify and study local issues, form coalitions of groups concerned with those issues, and get action.

We face a wide range of possible activities and allies. Teacher-community coalitions in New Jersey and Massachusetts and elsewhere have addressed issues such as television and its effects upon children. Civil rights and ethnic organizations may help with programs that encourage children to identify and research their heritage.

One of the best ways teachers and other education professionals can increase public awareness of IYC and children's needs is to prepare articles, guest editorials, and letters to the editor about IYC. Here teachers can suggest some of the needs of the community's children that they believe must be acted upon. Not only magazines, newspapers, and broadcast outlets, but neighborhood newsletters and trade and company publications might use such materials.

Collective bargaining also provides an effective means of addressing local issues related to children. We can bring many proposals to benefit children, particularly those that require school involvement, to the bargaining table. This is often the most effective place for us to come to grips with an identified community issue.

In the International Year of the Child and in future years, what is the legacy we give the children we teach today and those we will serve tomorrow? We must give all that we have to give to children.

Our professionalism demands that these concepts gain realization through a renewed commitment of our professional concern. □

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that going to school is a privilege. Getting an education is extremely important, and students usually behave, because they know they can't attend school if they do things they shouldn't, such as smoking or drinking. The teachers are severe and can hit you if they think you are not paying attention.

Korean students study algebra and geometry earlier than they do here. Perhaps that is one reason why Koreans are usually good in math.

I like most things about America. The people are very kind. The food is great—expecially pizza. The high school I attend offers far more freedom and variety of subjects than I would get at home.

Shefena Mekonnen, tenth grader, from Ethiopia: When I first arrived in this country, part of my problem was that some students taunted me and called me names. I still don't understand why they didn't want to be friends with me and went out of their way to make me feel bad. I am proud of who I am and proud of belonging to an ancient civilization.

One of the advantages of going to an American school is that there is so much equipment to help us learn. In biology, for example, I have the use of a microscope—something that would never be available in an Ethiopian high school. Another advantage is that teachers help students make up work after a legitimate absence. Ethiopian teachers just don't do that; whatever you miss is gone forever.

Laleh Teyjmurian, ninth grader from Iran: I can hardly believe how much I have changed since coming to America. At home, I was painfully shy and led a very sheltered life. I never went out by myself and was scared even to go to the shops.

In Iran, girls have almost no freedom. They don't go to parties or even meet boys except for relatives or family friends. Marriages are still often arranged, and boys and girls may become engaged when they are 12 or 13.

Going to an American school has cured me of my shyness. Being in class with boys has helped me become at ease with them. Sometimes I say to myself, "Is this really me meeting new people and talking to them instead of hiding in a corner?"

Education here is good. Students are not pushed every minute; they are encouraged to think for themselves instead of accepting what they are told.

The only bad part of being in America is that my father is still in Iran. We worry because there is much turmoil there right now. Then, too, my brothers and sisters and I need a father, and my mother needs a husband.

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–Jean Sheild, 3rd grade teacher

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Ms. Villines, left, discusses education legislation with State Senator Linda Winikow.

Meet Sharon Villines

Sharon Villines of Albany, New York, is a mentor—a supervisor of individual study programs—at Empire State College of the State University of New York. Trained as both an undergraduate and a graduate in painting and printmaking, she holds the rank of assistant professor in visual arts. Active in faculty association affairs, Villines is a member of the steering committee of the state university chapter of the NEA-affiliated New York Educators Association. She has also been active in politics, particularly on behalf of women's rights.

Villines attends classes once a week at Union Theological Seminary in New York City. On top of all this, she continues to practice her art and show her work in the Albany area and to bring up her son and daughter, ages 7 and 9, who spend half their time with her and half with their father.

Because of Villines' work at an unusual institution and the variety of her extracurricular interests, Nancy Needham of Today's Education *had a long conversation with her. What follows are excerpts from that interview.*

What exactly does it mean to be a mentor?

We are called *mentors* because we do more than teach. In fact, most of us do very little direct teaching in the traditional sense. We don't have classrooms or give lectures. The College is located in offices in over 30 locations around the state. Our work is primarily one-to-one discussions with students, who are studying independently under a contract system.

Each student who comes into Empire State is assigned a mentor. We start by deciding what prior learning the student has that might be credited toward a degree and planning what else the student should do to earn the degree. Then, of course, I supervise and evaluate the work of students in my own field.

Mentors design their own programs for getting students through the initial contract. I generally have students study degree programs of other colleges and universities so that they get a good sense of what a bachelor's degree is—how much credit people normally get for studying certain areas—how much English, how much history.

We do not have any rule that students follow traditional requirements, however. What we expect them to do is to put together a program that meets their needs and is academically well-rounded. But it can be totally unique—different from any program that a student would take in a traditional college.

Do students get credit for this?

Yes. They will receive credit for the process of exploring what education is. I have them do a lot of autobiographical writing. They examine their own lives, reexamine their objectives, and focus on what they want their lives to be in the next 10 years. They also read in the fields of education, career planning, and their area of interest.

How does their prior learning get evaluated?

I don't evaluate it—unless they're in visual arts. What I do is help my students put it together in a format which someone else can evaluate. I talk with them about what they have done and help them fill in the gaps. It is not uncommon for someone who comes in at the age of 60 to forget an entire 10-year period.

There is an assessment counselor on our staff who coordinates evaluations

of prior learning. If we have another mentor in the center who can evaluate the student, the assessment counselor would probably have the student meet with that mentor. If we don't have such a mentor, then we look for someone in the community who is an expert in that area.

Do the different centers have consistent standards for giving credit to prior learning?

We have perhaps reached a point of needing more consistency. There is concern that students are being penalized for being enrolled at one center rather than another one. They might, for example, get evaluative credit at one place and not at another for secretarial science or for physical education.

How is the question of credit for secretarial work handled at your center?

We don't have a set policy. Interestingly, what came out in faculty discussion of secretarial science is that the award of credit is sometimes a very sexist decision. Skills that are important in life but do not require high-level theoretical understanding get credit when they are male skills, like automotive or small appliance repair skills, but not when they are female skills.

Would you say that a student at Empire State is likely to get college credit in a wider variety of subject areas than a traditional candidate for the bachelor's degree?

Right. The traditional degree program limits the award of credit to what the faculty of that college offers. We take the student's background and educational objectives, rather than what we offer, as the starting point.

I have one student, for example, who went to high school in France and did college work in Italy. She traveled widely elsewhere in Europe and in the Near East, selling mutual funds, and then came back to the States. She helped to manage the Woodstock Festival and four or five other festivals, and traveled for two years across the United States as business manager of a rock band.

She has settled in the Woodstock area now, and has bought houses, which she renovates and sells. She is living in a house that she both renovated and landscaped.

One day she came in and said, "Listen, I want a degree." She wants to go into Rolfing, a technique of physical manipulation that is related to massage. The people who do that had told her, "If that is what you want to do, you have to have a degree."

The degree that we put together for her was in cultural studies. No school in the world would ever be able to offer her everything that she knows about France, Italy, Pakistan, Northern Africa. We were able to find evaluators from various subject areas, each to do a little piece. So that is her major, all done.

What she is studying at the College is anatomy and physiology because that is what she needs to do the Rolfing.

From a traditional viewpoint, aren't there problems in giving credit for experience? For example, if you give credit to this woman for traveling in Arab countries, don't you almost have to give everybody credit in American history for having lived in the United States?

We know that some people go to Africa and spend all their time in a hotel on a beach; other people read books before they go and really tour and interview. When we're evaluating learning that results from travel, we find out which direction a person has gone. That's why we ask them to write an essay on what they learned, because we can then see fairly quickly how extensive their undertaking was. They should be able to describe the political and social structure of the country, its history, some sense of its culture in comparison with our own.

I think that in many ways our graduates have "deeper" degrees in their areas than graduates of other programs are likely to have. This woman knows more about these particular cultures than any other undergraduate could possibly have learned in college.

What kind of people are your students—for example, are they what we think of as college-age?

We have a full range of students, but the majority are over 25 and under 45. We get a fair number of students in their 50's and even some in their 60's. Many of the older ones are people who did not get a degree and who now want one for their own satisfaction.

Are younger students as successful at independent study as older ones?

Students under 25 sometimes have a difficult time with the school. They need a peer group, and the college doesn't provide that. Unless they have strong community ties, they may feel isolated because they never see other Empire State students. They always know who their own mentor is, but when they see people wandering around the halls, they can't tell who is a student and who is another mentor.

What can you do to help students find out what they really want to pursue?

In many instances, it's a question of orienting them toward thinking about themselves instead of thinking about someone else.

Women especially?

Women very much. The whole idea of developing your life in the fullest way possible is a new focus, I think. It may be that this is a new focus just for women—or maybe it's a new focus for everyone, because I see a lot of men questioning in this way, too.

One man who changed direction was one whose job was to service IBM machinery, but at Empire State he wanted to do the history of furniture design. In the process of working on that, he designed and built some furniture for his home.

And then he wanted to work on the history of playground equipment, which he was interested in because of his children. We expanded that to include the whole field of playground design and the theory of play. So he did a lot of reading on the psychology of play, playground design, physical coordination in children; and in doing that, got very interested in parks and recreation.

So everything came together—his interests in furniture, in parks and their design, in child development, and in developmental psychology. The last I heard from him, he was in graduate school in parks and recreation.

In addition to working with students on their planning contract, you write contracts for students who are studying art. How long does it take a student to complete a contract?

A contract is like a semester; a full-time student might study two or three subjects or courses in one three-month contract. Part-time art students I usually set up with a four-month contract,

unless their topic is relatively limited, like the equivalent of one course in art history.

In art history, I usually have students begin with a bibliography. The other mentors handle contracts the same way—assign a basic textbook and ask students to compile a bibliography. The possibilities also include course work at other colleges, field work, internships, etc. The contracts with fine arts students also involve my doing critiques of work they bring in—their paintings, drawings, whatever they are working on.

Students are allowed to work on a contract as long as they need to. If they want to stay enrolled for two years to work with a mentor on basic statistics, say, they can. The credit award is the same no matter how long it takes to learn the material. The only requirement is that while they are receiving instructional services from the College, they must stay enrolled and pay tuition.

Do you ever give classes to students who are working in the same medium?

No, the College is designed to provide individualized education. In addition, we have difficulty with classes. I tried having group meetings in ceramics and painting because I had large numbers of students in those two areas. One difficulty is that frequently students come to us precisely because they do not want to be in groups.

Also, I've found that it would take too long for the students to come to terms with the differences within the group. When you have people from their early twenties to their late sixties, they have very different orientations to life and to art.

If they were all at the same level in skills, would it matter about their orientations?

Yes. They won't even recognize they are at the same level because they're doing very different things. I got three students in ceramics together. One student was a male, about 37, 38, who was living in a barn which he and his wife had converted to a house. They were living by choice on a minimal income.

He was working with a Japanese aesthetic in pottery, the same aesthetic which is attached to the tea ceremony. It glorifies the simple and the primitive, and yet at the same time is highly refined.

Collective bargaining gives people a format in which they can define their needs. It creates a process that requires management to formally recognize and resolve problems.

Then there was a woman in her early fifties, who lived in a suburb outside Albany. Her husband had built a two-car garage in back of their house and that was her studio. He bought her anything she needed.

She was doing work that had very shiny surfaces. She also liked illusion and would hang her pots from very thin nylon cord, which made them look as if they were floating in air. This was an aesthetic that the man rejected totally because it was unreal.

A second woman liked working with children, making pottery and also doing puppetry. She made puppets of papier-mâché. She also did folk singing.

You got these people together somewhere?

I got them together in my office with examples of their work. I thought each of them had something to offer to the others.

But it just didn't work. It was incredible. The painting students were the same way.

Were they hostile to each other?

Yes. It would take four to six months just to work out their hostilities and make them learn to accept people who were doing things differently from the way they were doing them. But students are too anxious to proceed with their own work to make that kind of commitment.

Let me ask you now about the faculty rather than the students. After a few years, how do mentors react to being mentors?

The danger is that you get out of touch with your basic field, you begin to feel very fragmented, pulled at from all directions both by students and by the College—which is always trying to be innovative and creative.

Each mentor is supposed to deal with 18 to 20 full-time students or the equivalent. Most of our students are half-time, so each of us may work with 30 to 40 different students at the same time. Since we deal with them individually, this means about 15 to 20 hours a week of contact with students—they are likely to come in every other week.

Is there a lot of turnover among the mentors?

There has been some turnover, but more problematic than that is people feeling oppressed but staying on because they believe in the mission of the college. I'm on the College's Academic Policy and Learning Programs Committee, and I think the question we face there is, How do we create in mentors a feeling of focus and self-development?

The first couple of years are invigorating. It's exciting to work in so many different fields and with an interdisciplinary faculty. I'm the only art person in my center. That can be very exciting, because I'm not used to working with economists and English people and human services people. But then, after a while, I begin to wish I were working with other art people.

How are your ideas about the faculty's situation related to your activity in faculty organizations?

I think that the process of collective

bargaining, for example, gives people a format in which they can define their needs and communicate them to another party. It also provides a process for reaching decisions that are compatible with other people's aims. It should not be viewed as a question of one side versus another, with one coming out the winner, the other, the loser. That's not productive because both sides are really working toward the same ultimate goal—a better university system.

How do you answer when people charge that collective bargaining brings on a lot of unnecessary friction between faculty and administration?

Management blames unions for causing the problems that management had in the first place. As soon as collective bargaining is established, people bring up problems that they never had a process for dealing with before. You don't bring up problems when there's no way to deal with them. Collective bargaining creates a process that requires management to formally recognize and resolve problems.

Is there an excess of problems just in the beginning?

Yes. After those things are dealt with properly in early contracts, problems should diminish and there should be far less to be concerned about.

Of course, good faith has a lot to do with the results of collective bargaining.

There shouldn't be any need for lengthy paper procedures or hearing procedures which go on and on and on. I think you only get into these situations when one side really believes that the other is not functioning in good faith—when management treats employees as if they were not a part of the institution, as if they were hired hands, so to speak.

Last year, you were president of the faculty bargaining organization at Empire State, which is affiliated with AFT. Now you're with NEA. Why did you leave AFT?

The local AFT chapter had an ideological viewpoint—probably typical of AFT—that I did not agree with. Their idea of unity was not to address issues that were potentially divisive. If women's groups, for example, said that they had a special interest that needed to be paid attention to, they would be accused of being divisive.

Also, there was no effective leadership. People were expected to fall in line but no effort was made to educate people about what was important. I think it's the obligation of a leadership to educate the members to make decisions, not just to make decisions for them.

NYEA is more democratic in that it's expected that there will be discussion, even if it takes three hours, and that those with differences will work them out.

I find NEA people to be much more able to look at issues in a complex way. Also, NEA people are much more willing to take a position for a moral reason. They're able to bite the bullet and say, this is what's right and this is what we have to do. Even if it's going to lose membership in a certain area or cause a lot of friction.

Besides your activities in the faculty association and in women's issues, you are a candidate for the Master of Divinity degree at Union Theological Seminary. Is there a connection between these activities?

I decided a few years ago that I wanted to focus more completely on how people develop a fuller life for themselves and on how you develop systems allowing people to do so.

What kind of social system is most supportive to individuals functioning alone? My political work and my work at Union Theological Seminary and to some extent my work at Empire State all focus around that. Working in labor organizing is one way in which I have found models for helping people to take control of their own lives and to analyze their lives in such a way that they can formulate what they want out of a given situation and then organize collectively to get it.

At one point, I had made a decision that the ministry would be a good place to do this kind of work. It seemed to me that the ministry is such a wide profession that you can choose to place your emphasis wherever you would like to place it.

I'm not sure whether I actually will end up in the ministry or not, but I think my study at Union is very helpful. People there are very community-oriented, very person-oriented, and very oriented toward finding out what is real. □

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 26

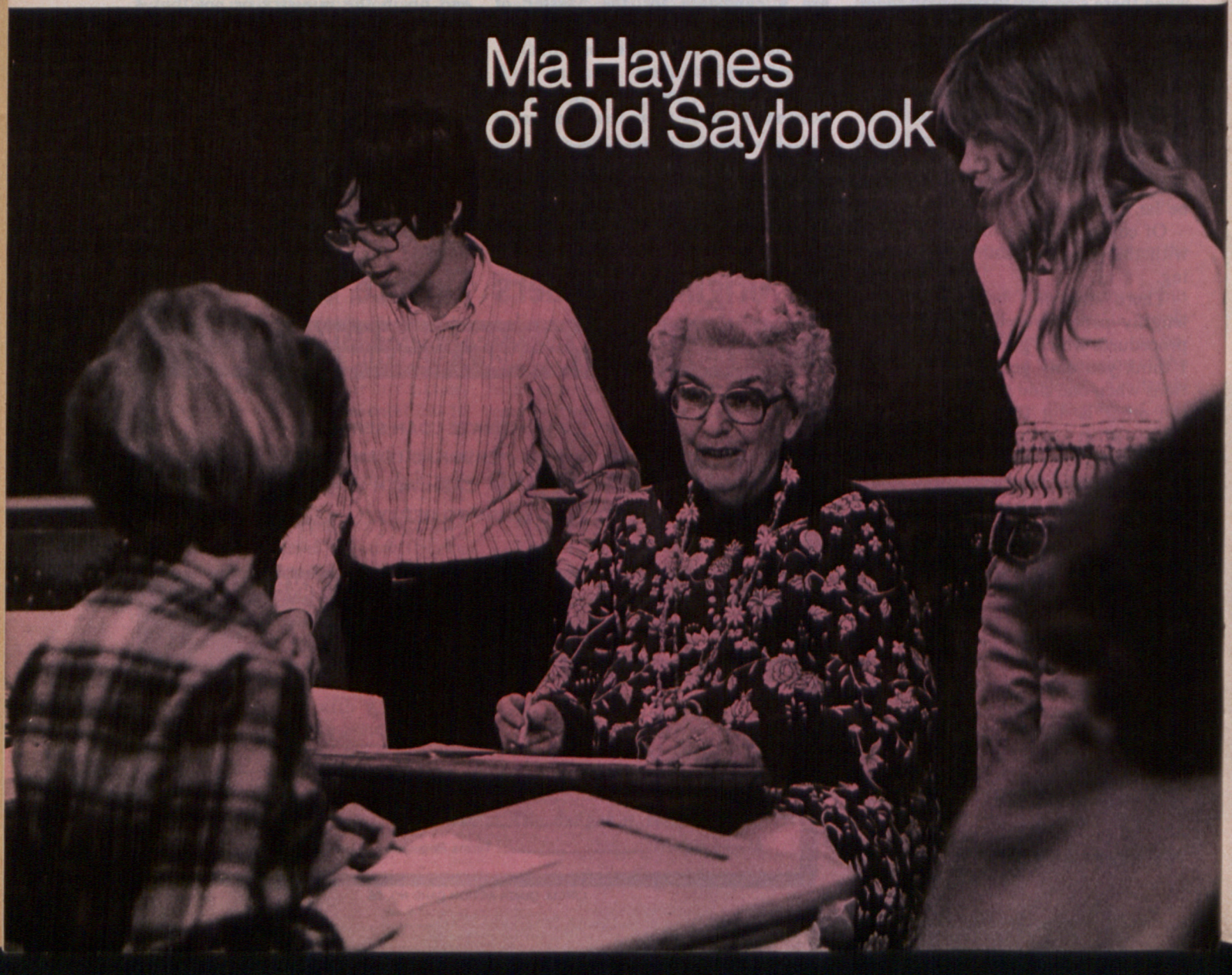
When the superintendent of schools in my home town recruits new teachers, he urges candidates to "come to historic Old Saybrook on the beautiful Connecticut River and Long Island Sound." Picturesqueness and age—the town was founded in 1635—are Old Saybrook's chief characteristics. It has not generated much education news in its more than three centuries.

In fact, the town's last major educational event occurred in 1716, when Yale College, founded here, decided to move away. The rector and a dozen or so students loaded a couple of wagons with Yale's precious books and began their trek to New Haven. Irate Saybrookites blocked the road and tried to argue the rector into staying. To no avail. Instead of becoming a college town, Old Saybrook became a farming town and eventually a bedroom community for Hartford, New Haven, and other cities.

By **BEN BRODINSKY**
Education Consultant, Old Saybrook, Connecticut. From 1960 to 1970, Mr. Brodinsky was a member of the Old Saybrook school board.

WHAT ABOUT RETIREMENT?

Ma Haynes of Old Saybrook



Suddenly, in 1978, Old Saybrook once again became the scene of an educational event that stirred the state. The central figure in the episode was Marion Haynes, a junior high school English teacher, who had reached age 70 in January. By state dicta, Ms. Haynes should have planned to clear her desk, say goodbye to her colleagues, and disappear from the scene at the end of the school year. She refused to do so. She told the board of education and superintendent that she intended to contest the state teacher retirement regulations and to keep on teaching and serving as head of the English department.

The board of education was delighted. The community applauded. The county bar association gave her the 1978 Law Day Award, and the local Veterans of Foreign Wars named her Citizen of the Year. Editorials and letters to the editor in newspapers throughout the state praised her action. Marion Haynes, teacher and friend of youth, had challenged the law, the establishment, and the deep-rooted practices for which, in fact, teachers themselves had fought for generations.

When Otto von Bismarck of Germany set up the world's first social insurance system in the 1880's, compulsory retirement at age 65 was one of its bright spots. Compassionate people hailed the move as an example of pure altruism, even though Bismarck's motives were neither pure nor altruistic. He went along with the plan for pensioning off older workers to quiet the unrest of the times. He set retirement at age 65 because life expectancy in Germany averaged 45 years, so the outlay for pensions would be no great financial burden.

Nevertheless, Bismarck's social insurance plan set the pattern for the rest of the world. The Congress based parts of our social security law in 1935 on the German plan, and U.S. industry adopted the concept of compulsory retirement into its own plans for older workers.

The organized teaching profession fought hard for a fair retirement system. Under NEA leadership, state teacher retirement plans were set up across the nation to provide a shield against impoverished old age. Invariably, the laws and regulations called for giving up one's profession at age 65—or at 70 at the latest.

Life expectancy increased, however, and older workers began to prove that age does not necessarily diminish productivity or creativity. Retirement—once accepted as a social boon—became a bane for many mature employees in industry and in the professions.

"I don't understand what the passing of one day in my life, even if it is a milestone day, has to do with my qualifications as a teacher," Ms. Haynes said during the local excitement that erupted when she vowed to fight for her right to teach after age 70. "Here I am looking at myself honestly and objectively—and I see in my favor, and in favor of students, years of experience and my energy and fitness and ability to bring something useful and important to the lives of young people."

There were broad national and social overtones to what Ms. Haynes was saying. For at the same time that this feisty teacher took her stand, other employed people in their sixties and seventies also had started to feel that being compelled to go into retirement was an injustice.

These older workers argue that age does not necessarily make them less productive. If their physical vigor diminishes, they say, it is often compensated for by improved judgment and leadership and by greater dedication to their jobs.

Mustering other arguments against forced retirement, experts cite society's need for the wisdom of the elderly and the elderly's need for income to prevent them from going on welfare and becoming an additional burden on taxpayers.

But the overwhelming argument against compulsory retirement—and one which Ms. Haynes used with great force—is that it singles out a portion of the population for economic penalty and professional punishment.

"Mandatory retirement is a practice as invidious as discrimination on the basis of race, national origin or sex or religion . . . the most obvious, most visible aspect of discrimination against older people . . . ," said Howard Eglit, a professor at Chicago—Kent College of Law, who voiced his opinion for the American Civil Liberties Union.

One of the factors working for Ms. Haynes was that she had begun her battle during the very months when Congress was completing new legislation to delay or abolish compulsory retirement for millions of workers. Under the bill, which President Carter signed into law in April 1978, most employees in private industry and state and local government cannot be forced to retire before age 70. More important for Ms. Haynes's cause was the provision wiping out mandatory retirement at any age for federal government workers. During the long hearings on this legislation, experts brought before the Congressional committees gave ample evidence that forcing people to stop working "solely on the basis of chronological age is a waste, unscientific in its background, and tragic in its consequences."

In short, the spirit of the times was with Ms. Haynes, and Ms. Haynes was with the spirit of her times.

But the chief reason Old Saybrook and its school system wanted Ms. Haynes to stay on the job was that people consider her a superior teacher. Students, parents, and school administrators are unanimous in extolling the excellence of her teaching. A composite of their views produces this vignette:

Here is a teacher of warmth and endless patience, with an understanding and love of children. She is creative in the classroom, trying new approaches to teaching and learning.

Her energy is what has impressed the townspeople. She has been heard to complain only of "too little time in a teaching period to cover everything the students are entitled to learn."

Longtime residents have also observed that during her years in the school system "she has never seemed to slow down, but has continued to take on more school activities." She has been involved in school dramatics and, according to the superintendent, has given hundreds of hours each year to produce "splendid stage presentations."

"And she goes about it with the same intensity and enthusiasm as she did 15 years ago," another administrator says. →

A former student of Ms. Haynes, who now teaches English in the same school, says that having her as a teacher was the turning point in his life. "She has always understood that what seemed easy and clear to some students was not always so to others, and she took time to work out each student's hang-ups. I always wanted to teach like Ms. Haynes."

Ms. Haynes describes herself as a disciplinarian with kindness. "I will not teach in chaos," she says, "but there is never any reason to get ugly with students. I am firm about the atmosphere students need to learn in, and by being firm but reasonable I find students will generally go along with my judgment."

In her classroom, Ms. Haynes stresses fundamental facts and the concepts underlying the use of written and spoken English. In a typical class session, she might tell students, "If you can't remember what a verb is, how are you going to write a simple sentence? And if you can't write a simple sentence, you won't be able to tell a simple story. If you can't tell a simple story, who will listen to you?"

Students in her classes spend considerable time studying grammar. They know that this work is a necessary preliminary step to communicating, whether by writing a letter to a friend, speaking with a prospective employer, or understanding the meaning behind the words of a TV commentator.

The study of grammar is a bridge to creative writing, Ms. Haynes believes, and creative writing is one of her great interests. She says: "If a teacher plays up the adventure and excitement of creating, whether it be in a story, poem, or essay, students will usually work at getting the basics so that they can get their points across in their own works of imagination."

Ms. Haynes will often stop in the middle of a formally structured lesson to tie in something that may be of personal concern to some students or to point out how the exercise relates to life in the school, the community, or the nation.

She told one student: "Prepositions may not seem important to you; they may seem boring or useless. If that is so, then look at this kind of exercise as practice in learning how to take directions. Compare my telling you to learn prepositions to your future boss's telling you to do a job. When your boss tells you to do a specific chore, you won't ignore him because the chore is boring or tiresome, or you will lose your job. Well, I'm telling you that if you don't learn prepositions, you will not pass tomorrow's test."

For Ms. Haynes, audiovisual aids are a precious gift. She believes that students need more than print to understand the world and its people. "A film on the unhappiness in the life of Edgar Allan Poe can do more to help students understand the feelings the poet has put into his poems than studying the vocabulary he uses," she says.

But the ultimate secret of success in teaching, Ms. Haynes believes, is to like children. "If you like children," she says, "you will want to help them learn as much as they can when they are with you."

This is the kind of teacher the people of Old Saybrook wanted to retain but were in danger of losing because of what many educators now call outdated state teacher retirement regulations.

Before Ms. Haynes had taken any formal action, a champion for the same cause had appeared in another town—Marten Tafel, a junior high school science teacher in Westport. Tafel also had turned 70, in March 1978. With the support of the United Legal Services Fund of the United Teaching Profession, he had promptly challenged the constitutionality of the regulations forcing teachers to retire at that age. "It is wasteful and discriminatory," Tafel said. "Teachers do not become imbeciles when they turn 70."

Tafel said that school administrators choose an arbitrary age at which to remove teachers from the profession because they do not have the technology to determine when a teacher's skills decline or weaken. That is not only unfair and improper but is also discriminatory, he argued.

"A teacher may be unfit for teaching at any age—say, 30 or 40—and should that happen, that teacher should be removed from the classroom," Tafel said. "All teachers should be evaluated throughout their teaching careers. We haven't been in the past, partly because no one has found fair and objective ways to do it. But we can be sure of this: Age is no valid criterion for determining ability to teach."

Like Ms. Haynes, Tafel had the support of his board of education, administrators, and the community at large. However, it was Tafel's direct action in the courts that determined the outcome for Ms. Haynes as well as for himself.

The story of the legal action is simple. Tafel's attorney summoned Connecticut's chief state school officer and members of the teacher retirement board to court. The suit forced the state's attorney general to take a close look at the laws and regulations that it challenged. He quickly recognized a discrepancy between the statutes on teacher retirement and the regulations set up by the state retirement board. The statutes allowed teachers to work past age 70 with their board's approval and without any cutoff date; but the state retirement board allowed teachers to work only until the end of the school year in which they reached that age.

With a speed practically unheard-of in governmental circles, the five-member retirement board repealed the rule in question and brought Connecticut's teacher retirement program into harmony with the statutes. Marten Tafel—and Ms. Haynes—had won the right to keep their jobs.

When school began in September 1978, Marion Haynes was in her classroom, fit and eager to teach another year—and another—as long as she wants to work. The school administration and the board of education are confident that she'll be able to carry on her duties as teacher, head of her department, and director of dramatics as effectively as in previous years. And among the townspeople—meeting in the post office or on street corners or chatting at meetings of the PTA or the historical society—there is quiet pride in "our Ma Haynes."

"What a remarkable woman!" said one Old Saybrook parent recently. "And you know, she's now a *great*-grandmother." □

Vicki Holroyd of the Hartford *Courant* gathered some of the facts used in preparing this article.

HOW DOES RETIREMENT WORK?

Looking Forward to Retirement?

Looking forward to retirement? Most of us are, either as "someday" in the far-distant future or as a day that is just around the corner.

Fortunately, teachers begin preparing for retirement the day they start working. Most teachers belong to a statewide retirement system that benefits either teachers exclusively or all public employees. The others belong to one of 17 city retirement systems. Money is automatically deducted from each of their paychecks for transmittal to one of these retirement systems. (No payroll deductions for retirement are made in New York, Florida, or Michigan, states where the employer pays all the contributions to the retirement fund.)

The amount deducted from each paycheck ranges from 3 to 9.5 percent. At the same time, school districts or state departments of education contribute additional money on each teacher's behalf. The retirement system then invests this money, so that by the time each participant reaches retirement age, there will be enough money in the account to pay his or her retirement benefits.

In most places, the amount of the benefit is the product of a formula in which "final" level of compensation and length of service are key elements. For example, a system might define the final level of compensation as the average of the highest three years' compensation. Its formula might then call for multiplying that figure, first, by a fixed percentage (say, 2 percent) and then by the number of years of service. The definition of *final compensation* and the fixed percentage by which it is multiplied vary from system to system.

By the end of the first three years of retirement, most retirees will have gotten back as benefits an amount equal to all their contributions. These benefits are tax-free. Further benefits are considered to be deferred compensation and are therefore taxable.

Most teachers will also receive Social Security payments when they retire at either age 62 or age 65. (The payments will be 20 percent less if the earlier age is chosen.) Differences exist between the Social Security program and a teacher or public-employee pension system.

First, Social Security is an income transfer system, that is, contributions paid into the system by current workers are used—almost immediately—to pay the benefits of other people who have already retired. Because their contributions are spent as soon as they are collected, workers cannot withdraw their contributions if they should leave the labor force before retirement. On the other hand, they can move from state to state or from occupation to occupation and still be covered by Social Security.

Public employee retirement systems receive money from three sources: the employer, the employee (as in Social Security), and income derived from investing the money contributed. In the 65 contributory public employee systems, the employee can withdraw contributions when leaving the employment of the state or city.

Preparing for retirement requires more than simply letting an employer deduct money from each paycheck for, say, 30 years and then collecting retirement and Social Security benefits. Members of public-employee retirement systems must give their immediate and continuing attention to several serious problems.

The first is the financial soundness of the retirement system. Teacher-participants want to be certain that when they retire there will be money enough in the system's trust fund to pay their benefits—or, to say it another way, to pay the part of their salaries they earned while teaching whose payment was deferred until retirement.

How can this be done? More teachers than at present should serve as trustees of the retirement system that manages their money. NEA estimates that teachers contribute $1.8 billion per year to teacher retirement systems. Proper investment of this money is crucial to the financial health of the retirement systems.

Management by politicians has, however, led to charges of mismanagement. One elected official has gone so far as to call public pension funds "political slush funds." Horror stories are not uncommon about state governments' raiding teacher retirement funds (borrowing from them at very low rates) to finance airport, highway, or public building construction.

Teachers need to be involved in

For their own good, teachers need to be involved in making decisions about how their retirement money is being managed by their retirement system.

making decisions about how their retirement money is being managed. At present, teachers serve as elected retirement system trustees in only 25 states. In 12 other states, the governors appoint teachers to serve as trustees. Teachers must take action to ensure that teachers are elected as trustees in all retirement systems.

A second problem is the increasing cost of the Social Security program. In thirty-seven states, teachers have elected to be covered by Social Security. As a result of the 1977 amendments to the Social Security program, not only will the Social Security tax rate be increased for these teachers, but they will pay this tax on a greater portion of their income. In fact, increasing proportions of employees are paying Social Security tax on their entire incomes.

The 1977 amendments also contain other provisions that will have adverse effects on all workers. Some of these will hurt public employees in particular. The NEA is currently generating support in Congress to eliminate these inequities.

- When the benefit formula enacted in 1977 is implemented, it will be impossible for anyone—retired or currently working—to determine their Social Security retirement benefit in advance because the new formula is related to economic factors that will change from year to year.
- Retired beneficiaries of public-employee retirement systems who are not themselves covered by Social Security will no longer be eligible automatically to receive the Social Security benefit available to spouses of Social Security beneficiaries. This spouse's benefit will be reduced by the amount of their own public-employee pension benefit. Social Security benefits to which public employees are entitled on their own will not be affected by this change, however.
- Before 1977, teachers over 62 years old who had 10-month contracts could draw Social Security retirement payments for July and August, and Social Security officers often encouraged them to do so. The reason was that during those months, they had no earned income, even though their annual salaries probably exceeded the ceiling on earned income for Social Security eligibility. Since 1977, however, a person whose pay has exceeded the ceiling (currently $4,500) can draw Social Security payments for months without salary only in the calendar year during which he or she retires (called the *year of entitlement*).

The Social Security Administration interprets this new provision retroactively—it says that the first year a teacher drew Social Security during the summer (or received benefits from Medicare) was that teacher's year of entitlement. Hence teachers who "used up" their year of entitlement before retiring will find that when they actually do retire they will have to wait until after December 31 to start receiving monthly Social Security checks—unless the income they earned that year before retiring is below the eligibility ceiling.

The most significant impact of the 1977 law, however, is the effect that increased Social Security taxes will have on the budgets of states and school districts. (Employers' contributions to Social Security were also increased by the 1977 amendments.) Coupled with Proposition-13-style tax revolts, these tax increases are creating fiscal worries for government officials. They have also stimulated a nationwide movement to make total retirement benefits smaller than they would otherwise be by integrating public employees' pension benefits with those of Social Security.

In contrast, NEA maintains that Social Security should *supplement* public employees' pension benefits. This is the current practice in 25 states; in 12 states, Social Security and public-employee pension benefits are already integrated.

Those who would integrate the system argue that retirees need only as much income in the first year of retirement as they received in take-home pay in their last year of work. They estimate this to be 75 percent of final gross salary. Their aim is to put a ceiling on what teachers and other public employees can receive in total retirement benefits. They would let Social Security pay what it is going to pay, with the retirement system paying the difference between that sum and 75 percent of final gross salary.

One teacher retirement system even offered to refund past contributions to members if they would join a proposed retirement plan to which they would not be required to make contributions but which would be integrated with Social Security. Fortunately, the teacher-members were alert enough to defeat the proposal.

The political pressures to integrate benefits are great, and they are going to continue. Unless teachers act quickly and consistently to protect their retirement systems from encroachment, benefits from these systems will be curtailed. And if they do not work to make sure that their retirement funds are well-managed, these benefits may not be paid at all.

Looking forward to retirement? Then get involved—and stay involved—in your retirement system for your own good.

—**Byron Spice,** *NEA Research.*

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Impact of P.L. 95-561

By CARL D. PERKINS
Democratic Representative, 7th Congressional District, Kentucky; Chair, House Committee on Education and Labor and Its Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education.

The Education Amendments of 1978 became Public Law 95-561 on November 1, 1978. For those of us involved in education matters at the federal level, passage of this legislation in the waning hours of the ninety-fifth Congress provided reason to rejoice. The bill did not of course summon the fanfare that passage of, say, a Department of Education measure would have. It did—and does—however, represent two years of work on issues equally vital for education.

P.L. 95-561 extends for five years (with some changes) the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and other major programs of federal aid to elementary and secondary schools. It authorizes more than $50 billion for programs that promise to touch nearly all our nation's schoolchildren.

For Congressional leaders, its passage caps 75 days of hearings—the most extensive I recall on an education bill since ESEA was originally passed in 1965. The law bears the stamp of the hundreds of individuals who voiced their recommendations: teachers; parents; administrators; researchers; representatives of a variety of organizations, including the National Education Association.

Considering the broad scope of the legislation and the superlatives that we in Washington have heaped on it, teachers undoubtedly will want to know how it will affect the way they do their jobs. I will try to sketch an answer to that question in this article.

Overview. There is no doubt that the injection of billions of dollars into the educational system—which this act will accomplish—will have tremendous impact. School districts will be able to mount programs that would otherwise be impossible, given today's tight financial atmosphere.

But this is not a revolutionary measure. It does not overthrow the structure of federal categorical aid programs or shift very much the patterns of federal aid, nor does it upset the balance of local, state, and federal governance.

The impact of these Amendments will come not in departing from old patterns, but in building on the 14 years of experience we have had in forging a national partnership to improve education. One theme that ran throughout the testimony on the proposed legislation was: "These programs are beginning to work; now is *not* the time for radical change."

Our Committee heard evidence based on evaluations and other research and from individual testimony that revealed a higher level of achievement for these programs than when we had last looked at them in 1974. For example, the National Institute of Education conducted the most comprehensive study ever done of Title I, the compensatory education program for disadvantaged children. It arrived at some encouraging results: First graders in the program gained 12 months in reading and 11 months in math during the seven-month period between test administrations. These children did not make these leaps by themselves. The diligent efforts of their teachers and of other educators were in large part responsible.

Thus, it seemed clear to those of us in Congress who were seeking to amend these programs that the proper course of action was to fine-tune them—to clarify provisions that were causing problems and to remove any impediments to educators' doing the best job possible.

Paperwork. In doing this, we uncovered a host of provisions that were ripe for improvement. Many had to do with paperwork, perhaps the greatest single roadblock to efficient administration at the local level. Classroom teachers do not need to be told that the 1.2 million person-hours that local districts spend each year doing paperwork for HEW's Education Division alone eat away at valuable staff time. Also, in an NEA survey of teacher attitudes, teachers cited a heavy work load as the third most serious problem facing them.

Unnecessary, duplicative, and poorly timed federal requests for data contribute greatly to this load. NEA's testimony before our committee informed us that Title I teachers had to put in an average of more than an hour a day just to satisfy the program's paperwork requirements.

So paring paperwork to a minimum stood foremost in our minds. To this end, the new law:

- Requires multiyear—as opposed to annual—applications for all the major federal programs. It also allows the Commissioner of Education to provide for two-year applications with annual updates for any other education program. In addition to eliminating a lot of paperwork, these provisions should also alleviate some of the uncertainty that the annual application process has fostered.
- Allows the Commissioner of Education to provide for a common application for similar types of federal aid.
- Requires the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare to review and coordinate all federal data collection activities that concern educational institutions or education policy. Agencies must justify the need for every data collection in terms of its cost in money and person-hours before it can be approved.
- Mandates that all data-reporting requirements for a given school year be publicly announced by the preceding February 15 to give school districts several months' lead time.

Clarity. The director of the NIE Title I study, Paul Hill, summarized a second major snag for teachers trying to implement federal programs:

At the local level the greatest problem is mastering complex rules, not only for Title I and other federal programs, but also for a growing number of state programs. In general, these various requirements can be fit together to permit a reasonably simple set of programs. But if they are dealt with one by one, the diverse requirements

(Continued on page 70)

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seem very burdensome.

Requirements that are confusing and unnecessarily complex breed other ills. For example, if state officials do not understand their responsibilities, they are likely either to ignore them or to adopt overly strict policies. Similarly, if local people do not have clear information, they are likely to design programs that are either overly rigid or are not in compliance with federal requirements.

The 1978 Amendments attempt to solve these problems by laying out requirements more logically, by completely rewriting many programs, and by ensuring that local and state officials receive easy-to-understand supplemental information. To note a few examples, the new statute:

- Spells out—in separate sections—local, state, and federal responsibilities in the Title I program.
- Requires the U.S. Office of Education to develop a Title I policy manual containing clear interpretations and illustrations of the program's rules for use by teachers and other interested parties. USOE must also provide education personnel with models of legal and nonlegal programs.
- Requires local districts to disseminate to teachers pertinent information from research, demonstrations, and similar Title I projects. The Commissioner, too, must make available to the education profession the results of evaluations and exemplary projects.
- Requires states to develop written procedures for resolving complaints from teachers and other persons about Title I and Title IV (library and learning resources and educational innovation) programs.

Flexibility. The lack of flexibility in certain federal requirements appears to be a third stumbling block for teachers and others at the local level who are trying to develop good education programs. As a result, P.L. 95-561 attempts to allow local districts more latitude. For example, the Amendments:

- Permit personnel paid solely out of Title I funds to be assigned certain noninstructional duties shared by other staff members in a school, such as

(Continued on page 72)

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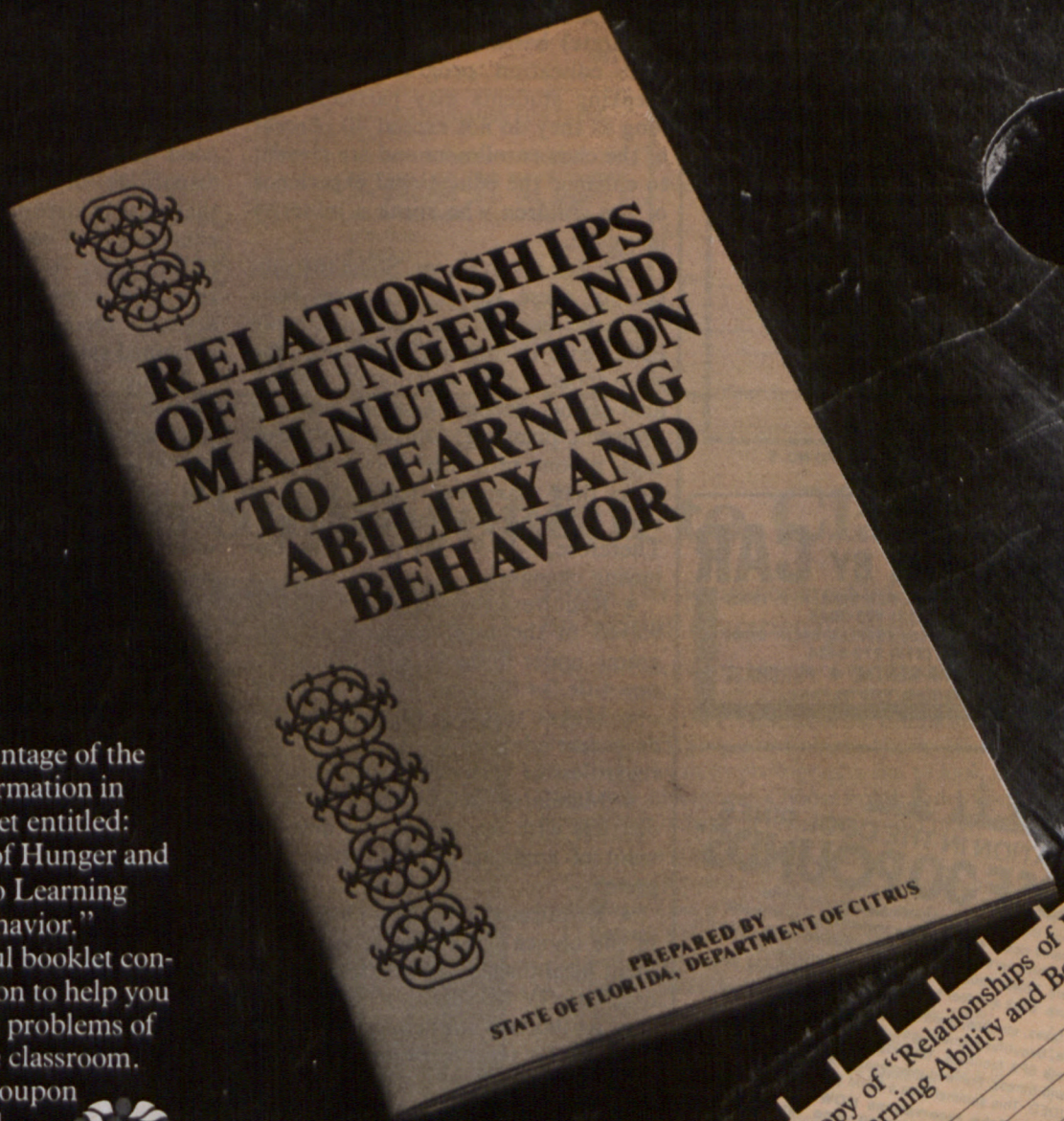
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P.L. 95-561
(Continued from page 70)

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- Allow for limited exemptions from Title I rules for states with acceptable compensatory education programs of their own.
- Permit schoolwide plans for the use of Title I funds to meet the needs of all students in schools where 75 percent or more of the children come from low-income families.
- Emphasize that schools have the option to reach Title I students on either a mainstream or a "pullout" (separate) basis. In the case of bilingual education programs, English-speaking students may participate as long as they do not exceed 40 percent of the class enrollment and are present to enhance the educational experience of the children who speak a minority language.

Teacher involvement. Since the success of these federal programs rests squarely on teachers, it would make little sense to minister to some of the sore spots I just mentioned without also giving teachers a strong voice in program planning. During our hearings, no one presented better descriptions than classroom teachers did of what really happens to federal dollars. Therefore, P.L. 95-561 makes the following changes:

- Requires that teachers be involved in the local planning of programs under Title I, Title IV, and a new title for basic skills improvement.
- Makes teachers eligible to serve on parent advisory councils for Title I regardless of where they reside.
- Mandates consultation by local districts with teachers in the development of applications for certain programs.
- Requires that teachers have a say in the choice of materials and equipment local districts purchase with federal Title IV funds.
- Authorizes funds in nearly every program for teacher training.

We have made an effort in this new law to allay some of the frustrations that teachers associate with federal programs. In return, we are depending on the concern and conviction of all teachers to make these Amendments a success. Although not all teachers work directly with federal programs, most are likely to use materials bought with federal funds, apply ideas learned from federally sponsored demonstrations, or teach students who participate in federal programs.

But I must caution that the law alone will not guarantee a rosy future for education. Too many problems remain. The public is demanding more from education every year. Costs of all services continue to rise. Bond issues to support education are becoming more difficult to pass. Declining enrollments are creating dilemmas.

The facts are that we can pour billions upon billions into ESEA programs, and teachers can work harder than ever before, but some districts will still have a tough time supporting good basic education programs. The disparities in educational resources that exist in state and local financing of education will see to that. In fact, in recent years, the disparities between rich and poor school districts have actually increased in 13 states and remained stagnant in 20 more.

To my way of thinking, relief will have to come from a general federal aid program of the sort that NEA has proposed for several years. Although the federal budget and the climate in Congress did not allow for enactment of such a program in 1978, nonetheless we did put some provisions into the new law that I feel will lay the groundwork for a general aid/equalization program. Amendments would:

- Require the establishment of an advisory panel on school finance, as recommended by the NEA. This panel will assist the Secretary of HEW in conducting comprehensive studies of school finance, including an analysis of future federal roles in this area.
- Authorize $4 million each year for grants to states to help them revise their systems of financing elementary and secondary education.
- Require HEW to collect data on the status of equalization of educational resources in the states.

In conclusion, P.L. 95-561 is simply an icing—albeit an exceptionally rich and tasty one—on the educational cake; to my mind, we need a change in the basic recipe. And it is my hope that we can set about making that change as expeditiously as possible. □

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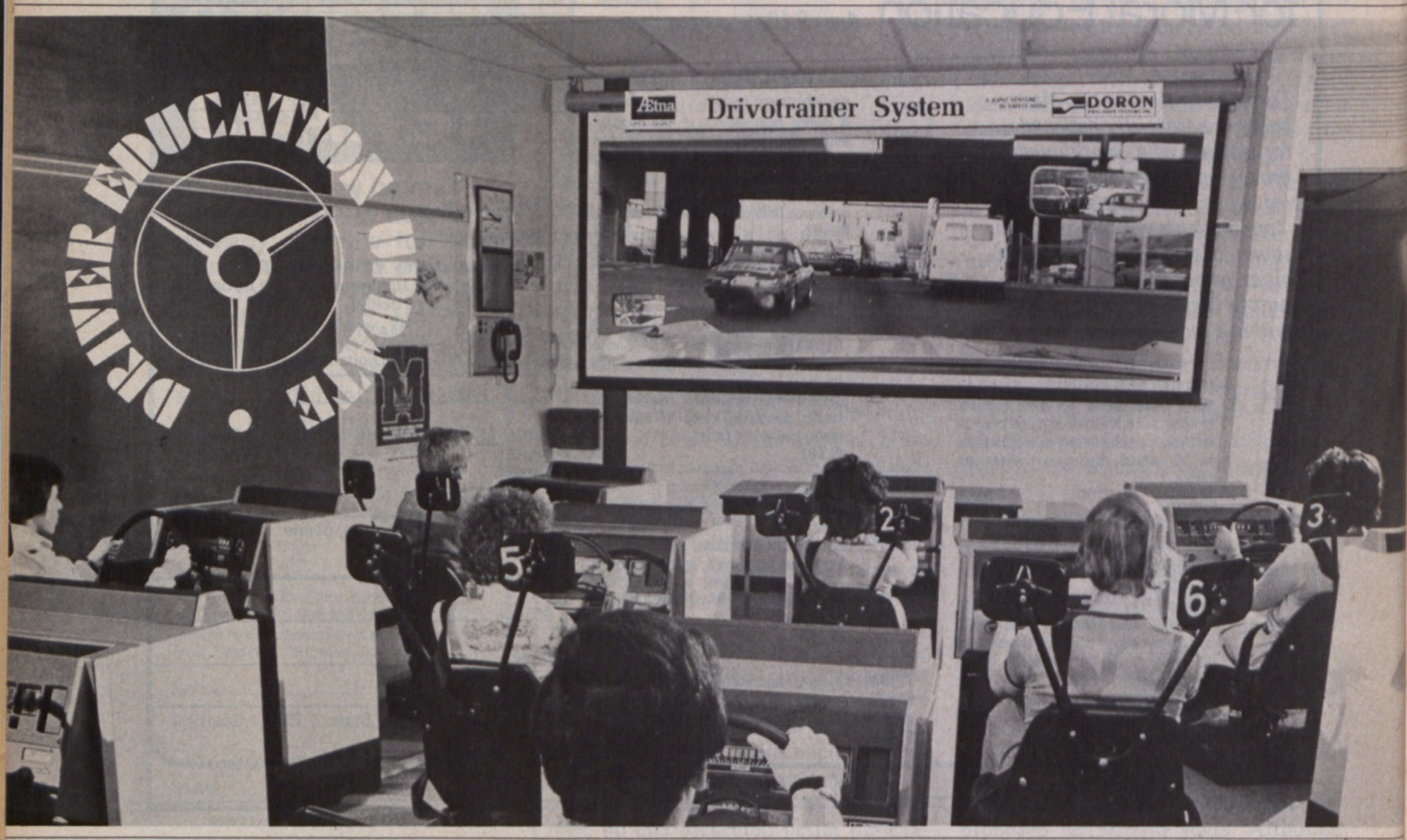

Budget watchers, eager to cut taxes, see public education as a prime target. Driver education is certainly not immune from their efforts. After more than 40 years, it remains one of the most closely scrutinized instructional programs. But when the costs of driver education are compared to the hospital and medical bills of those injured in auto accidents and the repair bills for damaged cars, driver education should appeal to the shrewdest of bargain hunters.

Still, there is no doubt that driver education is controversial. While most people agree that would-be drivers need formal instruction, some say that such instruction has no place in the schools.

There are also unanswered questions about what is expected of driver education. For example, is accident reduction the sole criterion on which it is to be judged successful? Advocates of school programs say that accident reduction is not the only criterion for success. They note that the high school driver education curriculum has concentrated on the attitudinal and manipulative aspects of driving. While safety is an explicit objective in this curriculum, the emphasis has been on learning how to drive—an obviously useful goal.

Critics of school-based programs point to the Federal Highway Safety Act of 1966, which mandated accident reduction as the sole criterion for evaluating the success of school driver education programs. They also note that numerous attempts at evaluation have produced no convincing evidence that driver education has reduced accidents. Conversely, advocates point out that there is no evidence that it has not.

When Horace Mann told us that schools exist to teach people to do better that which they'll be doing at some point in their lives, he made the case for driver education in the schools. Ours is a mobile society. For most of us, participation in this society depends on use of the private automobile. Citizens must be prepared to participate in the transportation system, and the schools are uniquely able to provide the instruction that is necessary.

For years (driver education was introduced in the schools in the mid-1930's), instruction was based on what we simply thought was right. In contrast, today's learning objectives are

By WILLIAM D. CUSHMAN
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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 32

the outgrowth of rigorous research. In the late 1960's the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, part of the U.S. Department of Transportation, conducted a study of driver education and followed it up with a careful analysis of driving tasks. The analysis determined the relative importance for safety of each driving task. For example, on a scale ranging from −20 to +20, parking has a value of −5 while skid recovery is valued at +16.

Instructional programs developed from such data show that driver education is not just a matter of riding around all day. Today's instructor is an educational strategist who leads students through a carefully planned series of learning experiences.

The best driver education courses are a full semester long. Their integrated curriculums offer traditional classroom learning experiences and on-street practice driving, as well as simulated driving experiences. Some courses use multiple-car ranges, where between five and 12 students in separate cars can practice off the street, under the supervision of one teacher. Short-range radio contact facilitates this instruction.

The best courses are moving away from time-based instruction (30 hours in the classroom and six hours behind the wheel) and toward performance-based learning. Students are required to demonstrate specific competencies related to roadway use before moving on to the next learning task.

Programs like these teach techniques that experienced drivers had to learn the hard way. Since the immediate environment is so critical to driving, students receive carefully structured perceptual training. They are taught to be better judges of road conditions. The emphasis is on responsible decision making and performance.

Conducted by well prepared, committed teachers, these courses utilize both large and small group instruction. The teachers go beyond chalkboard and textbook. In addition to more commonly used media, they enliven instruction with single-concept films on such specific topics as entering a freeway; trigger films to get students' attention and stimulate discussion; and, sometimes, their own slides of local conditions. They also provide learning activity packages which require accomplishment of a variety of experiences on the way to achieving a specific competence. These teachers are likely to have acquired major or minor certification in other instructional areas as well as having had specialized preparation in driver and traffic safety education.

Some driver education teachers feel that neglecting to offer training in high-risk situations is like putting a test pilot in an experimental airplane without a parachute. To provide training in recovering from skids, for example, they may have their students use a moving skid simulator—perhaps a modified shopping cart or hospital bed—which the instructor pushes from behind to simulate first a skid and then recovery or a worse skid as the student turns a simulated steering wheel. They may have students use skid pans—extensive areas of blacktop pavement, which, when sprayed with water, enable students to practice the real thing with cars moving at about 32 km per hour (20 m.p.h.) These are examples of how teachers can use alternate technologies to teach the same skills.

In some schools, students use three-screen projections to view different kinds of intersections. Thus they learn to turn their heads quickly to gain the perspective needed for safe decisions at intersections. At the same time, they learn how to evaluate road conditions and to judge speed/time/distance factors that are crucial to their ability to successfully negotiate intersections—with or without traffic signs or signals. Group instruction of this sort makes it possible to cover a wide variety of settings in great detail. On-road experiences will, of course, reinforce the learning. But the key benefit of simulations like these is that they make a smaller amount of the more expensive on-road instruction necessary.

Unfortunately, not all programs include such imaginative instruction. There are token efforts which, because of lack of genuine commitment, aren't doing the job. The lack of commitment may be that of the school board, the administration, or the teaching staff, or of all three. In any event, these weaker courses are recognizable by a number of characteristics.

An absence of concurrent instruction using all approaches is one major weakness. Offering classroom instruction and behind-the-wheel instruction at different times means that some information and techniques will be lost or forgotten; and opportunities to reinforce learning, omitted.

Another weakness lies in attempts to introduce visual skill instruction and to correct mental errors during the on-road phase of instruction rather than during earlier classroom instruction. These are expensive and time-consuming characteristics of weaker programs. Teachers must learn to get results more efficiently.

Programs that use part-time teachers can be weak, too. Where driver education is a secondary instructional responsibility, there is a greater likelihood that teachers will be underprepared and not familiar with the characteristics of a good program. Additionally, under such conditions, teachers may give their best energies to their primary subject and less to driver education.

Finally, too many programs still stress skills and give too little attention to decision making.

(continued on page 78)

What the Driver Education Curriculum Should Cover

State laws and rules of the road
Drugs and alcohol
The bicycle and the motorcycle in the traffic mix
Elementary auto maintenance and repair
Pedestrian rights and responsibilities
Fuel economy, energy conservation, and the environmental impact of the auto
The concept of no-accident driving
Human capabilities and limitations in driving
Physical laws (friction, centrifugal force, inertia) relevant to driving
Techniques for driving in rain, fog, snow, darkness, ice, wind, and dust
Skid prevention and recovery
Evasive maneuvers in emergencies
Self-understanding as an aid in controlling drivers' emotions and keeping their attention on the driving task. □

Adapted with permission from "What's Good About Driver Education" by D. Paul Sondel. *Traffic Safety*, September 1978.

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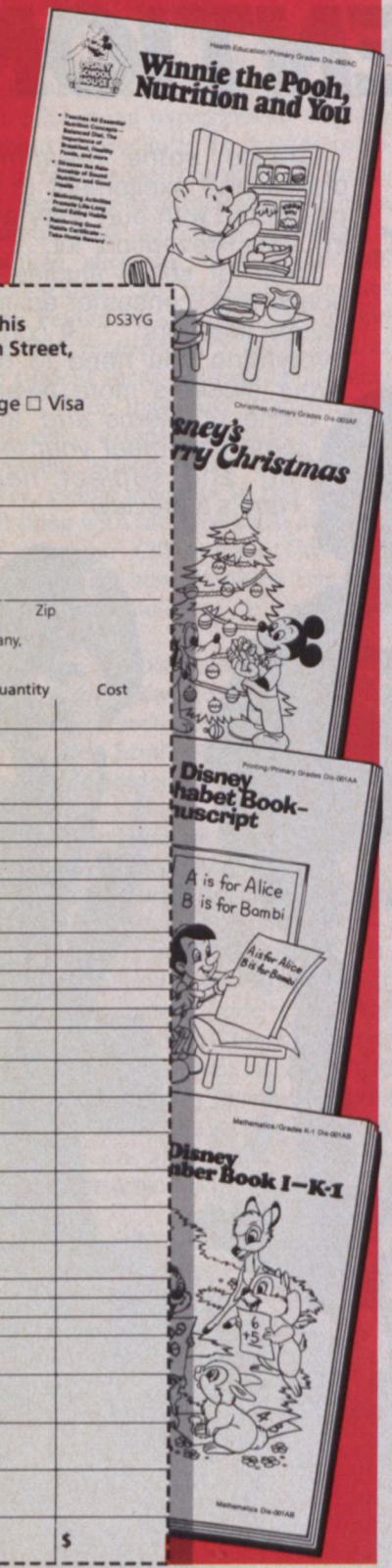

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The real potential of driver education is yet to be realized, but research continues. In DeKalb County, Georgia, the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration and the local school system are jointly funding a $6 million project to determine the effectiveness of a Safe Performance Curriculum recently developed from the Administration's earlier analysis of driving tasks. This is a carefully structured study and is expected to yield sound data upon which continued curricular improvement at cost-effective levels can be based. Final results of the study won't be available until 1983, however.

In the interim, many courses can be vastly improved. In addition to the examples of effective instruction mentioned earlier, the following are effective techniques that some teachers are already using. A comprehensive in-car checklist, based on the above-mentioned task analysis, can provide sound direction and uniformity to the learning process. Also, rather than taking students out in the car to encounter problems randomly, some teachers select particular problems and then take students to areas where those problems are likely to occur.

Some driver education teachers already take the lead in involving teachers of other subjects in cooperative instructional efforts. For example, they work with science teachers on the laws of nature; with social studies teachers on traffic laws; with business teachers on insurance matters; and with health, biology, and social studies teachers on alcohol as it affects driver behavior. Parents, too, can play a role in driver education. Teachers could involve them to a greater degree. Finally, the better teachers continue to upgrade and improve their preparation and to implement new ideas as they become available.

Driver education in the schools is one dimension of the broad national traffic safety program. It is assuredly not guaranteed to eliminate all motor vehicle mishaps.

But driver education does prepare people to do better that which they'll eventually be doing anyway. Considering the limited time and resources allotted to driver education, it performs this vital function very well indeed. ☐

Audiovisual Materials

Conservation

The following 16mm sound and color films are recommended by William J. Cuttill (with the assistance of Beverly Teach), Indiana University Audio-Visual Center, as representative of those available on the indicated grade levels for use in stimulating discussion on various areas of conservation. The producers/distributors listed can provide additional information about the films.

Ecology: Barry Commoner's Viewpoint. 19 min. 1977. Features the noted biologist as he explains the threat of technology to the environment. Grades 7-12. Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corporation, 425 North Michigan Ave., Chicago 60611.

Energy: The Facts . . . The Fears . . . The Future. 62 min. 1977. Reports the status of U.S. energy resources and future needs. Narrated by Walter Cronkite. Grade 7-college. BFA Educational Media, 2211 Michigan Ave., Santa Monica, CA 90406.

Gasoline and How To Stretch It. 17 min. 1978. Explores driving techniques and maintenance procedures useful in reducing unnecessary gas consumption. Grades 9-12. Pyramid Films, P.O. Box 1048, Santa Monica, CA 90406.

Seeking and Conserving Mineral Resources. 13 min. 1978. Illustrates methods of locating mineral resources by land, sea, and air. Grade 7-college. Counselor Films, 146 Montgomery Ave., Bala Cynwyd, PA 19004.

Silent Forest. 22 min. 1977. Examines the unique ecosystem of the underwater kelp "forests" off the Pacific coast of North America. Grades 1-12. Arthur Barr Productions, Inc., 3490 E. Foothill Blvd., Pasadena, CA 91107.

Studying Electricity. 16 min. 1978. Illustrates methods of producing electricity by using chemicals, windmills, and sunlight. Grades 4-12. Journal Films, Inc., 930 Pitner Ave., Evanston, IL 60202. □

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CIRCLE QUICK-ACTION CARD NO. 9

Notable Children's Films—1978

This list presents 16mm films recommended for use in programs for children, preschool through grade 8. It was compiled by the members of the Film Evaluation Committee, Association for Library Service to Children, American Library Association.

The films were selected from among those nominated by committee members and others—school and public librarians and audiovisual specialists across the country. The films were chosen, after viewing, on the basis of appeal to children, but each committee member also took into consideration the technical quality, subject content, and possible use of the film with different kinds of audiences.

As with any film, each title should be previewed before being incorporated into a program for children. The list represents a variety of tastes, and the films should be useful in a variety of situations.

Films are in color and sound unless otherwise noted. All were released in the United States during 1976 and are now commercially available. While most can be rented, only the sale price is listed, and that is subject to change. Unless otherwise indicated, films have the same titles as the books or stories on which they are based.

The following symbols suggest audience level: P-preschool, E-elementary, J-junior high.

The Amazing Cosmic Awareness of Duffy Moon. Pint-sized Duffy develops self-confidence through a mail order course in "cosmic awareness." An entertaining film with a successful blend of humor and suspense and a realization that there's nothing wrong with being different. Based on Jean Robinson's *The Strange but Wonderful Cosmic Awareness of Duffy Moon* (Seabury, 1974). E-J. Time-Life. 32 min., $400.

It Must Be Love, 'Cause I Feel So Dumb. Thirteen-year-old Eric, a loner, tries to change his personality to impress his first love. When his dog is killed, a girl who likes him the way he is provides the compassion he needs. E-J. Learning Corp. 29 min., $355.

Kick Me. A chase, so heated that the film finally appears to burn, is the subject of this brightly colored and swiftly paced animation drawn on film. A jaunty pair of legs kick at objects in their path until they are pursued in turn by a giant ball, a fish, and a horde of spiders. E-J. Little Red Film House. 8 min., $140.

Little Tim and the Brave Sea Captain. This iconographic work effectively portrays Edward Ardizzone's story (Walck, 1955) of a small boy's adventures as a stowaway and of his heroism in a storm at sea. P-E. Weston Woods. 9 min., $120.

Luke Was There. When 12-year-old Julius must spend some time at a children's shelter, he takes with him his fear and suspicion of adults. This effective and touching dramatization focuses on the growing relationship between Julius and his counselor, Luke, who helps the boy understand that some adults do care. Based on the book by Eleanor Clymer (Holt, 1973). E-J. Learning Corp. 32 min., $365.

Me and Dad's New Wife. Nina, a 12-year-old whose parents are divorced, discovers her math teacher is her father's new wife. She uses her friends to punish the new wife. Based on *A Smart Kid Like You* by Stella Pevsner (Seabury, 1974). E-J. Time-Life. 33 min., $400.

Nicky: One of My Best Friends. Blind and partially paralyzed, 12-year-old Nicky Sarames interacts with friends and teachers at public school. This warm and believable documentary emphasizes the ways in which he is like—not unlike—other children. E-J. McGraw-Hill. 15 min., $230.

Owl Who Married a Goose. With remarkable brown-and-white sand animation and minimal Eskimo dialogue, this legend of the owl who chooses a goose as his mate is a moving story of the problems of incompatible love. His determination to live as the goose does leads to his death. E-J. Stephen Bosustow. 7½ min., $145.

Really Rosie. The characters in Maurice Sendak's *Nutshell Library* (Harper, 1962) are brought to life in a show starring Rosie of "Rosie's Door" fame. The catchy, clever songs, written and sung by Carole King, and the lively, expressive animation make this film a sheer delight. P-E. Weston Woods. 26 min., $365.

Skateboard Safety. A live action film which concentrates more on "do" than on "don't do"—and upon the stunts and competitions involved in the sport. The unusual camera angles and the variety in pacing make this an entertaining and instructive film on a popular athletic activity. E-J. Pyramid. 13 min., $200.

The Street. Imaginatively and lovingly animated, this provocative, thoughtful film focuses on the death of a young boy's grandmother. Based on Mordecai Richler's novel (New Republic, 1975). J. National Film Board. 10 min., $160.

Thank You, Ma'am. Seeing an older woman walking alone from work, a young boy tries to snatch her purse. Instead the woman "snatches" him: takes him home, feeds him, explains her outrage, and shows her understanding. They part inconclusively, but each has touched the other. From a short story by Langston Hughes. E-J. Phoenix Films. 12 min., $225.

Where Is Dead? Subtle, honest, and well-acted. In approaching an understanding of the death of her older brother, a six-year-old girl learns from her parents and friends how memory and feeling bring into perspective the hurt and frustration of loss. E-J. Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corp. 19 min., $255.

Distributors

Stephen Bosustow Productions, 1649 11th St., Santa Monica, CA 90404.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corp., 425 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago 60611.

Learning Corp. of America, 1350 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10019.

Little Red Film House, 119 S. Kilkea Dr., Los Angeles 90048.

McGraw-Hill Films, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York 10020.

National Film Board of Canada, 1251 Avenue of the Americas. New York 10020.

Phoenix Films, 470 Park Ave. S., New York 10016.

Pyramid Films, Box 1048, Santa Monica, CA 90406.

Time-Life Multimedia, Time & Life Bldg., Rockefeller Center, New York 10020.

Weston Woods Studios, Weston, CT 06880.

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Classroom Tips

By JANE TYLOR FIELD
Retired Teacher of English and Creative Writing, Chula Vista, California.

These are suggestions made or collected by Ms. Field, and she urges NEA members to send in interesting and useful teaching ideas on the elementary and secondary levels for possible use in future issues of Today's Education. *Ms. Field asks that those who submit classroom tips keep copies of their material, as she cannot return the originals.*

Mail suggestions to Box CT, Today's Education, *1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036.*

Some teachers are great travelers, and they use their travels effectively in the classroom. One of these is Joyce Howe of Downers Grove, Illinois. Recently, she determined to put to good use an upcoming Easter Week trip to Europe. Her targets were ninth graders in a remedial English skills class, a group who were weak in reading, writing, and general knowledge.

A week before leaving, Ms. Howe asked the students to prepare lists of questions they thought she could find the answers to in Belgium, Holland, or Paris. Usually reluctant scribes, the class wrote diligently for a full class period. Perhaps, Ms. Howe suggests, they were surprised that their teacher would take time to find out what *they* wanted to know.

Some students who had recently seen the film *The Hunchback of Notre Dame* (with Charles Laughton) hoped she would climb that cathedral's tower. Others asked about European schools, their books, schedules, and report cards. One student, who had heard strange rumors, requested an investigation of European plumbing. Ms. Howe promised to do her best to find all the answers and even to record some of them with an 8 mm camera.

The day after her return, she responded to each student's inquiries, one by one. Later, when her films were almost ready to be shown, she prepared the class for looking at them.

First, she gave the students a blank map of Europe and asked them to draw the boundaries of Holland, Belgium, and France. Their second task was to locate and label (spelling the names correctly) the cities she had visited. This was not easy, because European geography was new to these students.

Next day Ms. Howe gave the class members worksheets that listed the views her films would show and also gave them factual questions to answer as they watched.

After the film showing, the students wrote summaries of their reactions—much more fluently than they had done any previous writing assignments. Ms. Howe typed each one's rough draft exactly as written and asked the students to correct their own mistakes. There were many, and the typing made them very visible. The final revisions were done with great care after Ms. Howe announced that she planned to keep them in the scrapbook of her trip.

An interesting reaction that emerged from the students' summaries was their concern with the fact that their teacher had made the journey alone. Apparently, it was a revelation to these insecure adolescents that it is not necessary to have a friend along for every venture.

What were children at Hickman Elementary School in San Diego doing with a huge silk parachute?

They were gripping it around the edges and flapping it up and down as their classmates ran under it, hoping to get all the way out before it was lowered to trap them. Done all in fun, of course, the parachute flap was one of six Field Day activities celebrating the last weeks of school. Other events were folk dancing, playing with an earth ball (an outsize inflatable ball), the tug of war (four ropes were broken!), and two relay races. Six hundred children in 18 classes—kindergarten through third grade—participated, six classes at a time. Each class stayed only 10 minutes at a station, then moved on.

The aim of the day? Just fun. Sides had been chosen before the classes went outside. The teachers had walked up and down the aisles, handing out red and blue ribbons alternately—a method of selection that avoided for anyone the stigma of being selected last.

The Field Day climaxed a year of cooperation between the motor skills instructor, Jorja Austin; the school nurse practitioner, Alma Hill; classroom teachers; and the PTA (which had raised over $100 to purchase the earth ball). Staff from the local children's hospital also were involved. They gave instruction in using the earth ball to improve motor skills.

Throughout the school year, classes had come to the school's Motor Skills Center for testing and to do exercises designed to build up skills, coordination, and self-image and to strengthen muscles. Besides the earth ball, the Center has jump ropes, nerf balls, bean bags, and a balance beam. All the faculty were supportive of the Center's goals and kept a careful lookout for children with inadequate motor skills as well as for their subsequent improvement.

How can you get spelling exercises to work for emotionally disturbed and learning-disabled teenage girls? Alanna Mozzer found some ways to do so when she worked with such a group at Valleyhead School in Lenox, Massachusetts. The tested reading level of these girls ranged from preprimary through second grade. They were also immature emotionally.

One device that proved especially helpful was a table whose top was also a chalkboard. On it the girls wrote their spelling words with colored chalk. Ms. Mozzer did not worry about their copying from one another. She praised correct spellings and ignored errors, rather than condemning them.

As an additional help, Ms. Mozzer wrote each word and its definition in cursive script on one side of an index card and in typescript on the other side. Each student had her own set of word cards and was allowed to choose which words she wanted to learn. That privilege made the girls more interested in their special words and inspired their efforts.

(Continued on page 84)

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Classroom Tips

(Continued)

Here is a technique to help eliminate cheating during tests. It comes from Henry Lulli of the math department, John C. Fremont High School, Los Angeles. When giving weekly quizzes, Lulli makes six or nine variations of the same test, getting three variations to one ditto master. The questions are slightly different on each variation. The variations are keyed by the first digit of their first problem, e.g., if the first number in the first problem is 32, he numbers that paper variation 3, to be corrected according to answer sheet 3. Lulli then collates the test papers into packets, each containing the complete series of six or nine versions in order. Putting the packets into a pile, he hands out the individual papers in snake fashion—up one row and down the next. The result is that every sixth or ninth student has the same test. Because of the snake arrangement, students with the same variation do not sit near each other.

Since he never starts more than one variation with the same question, Lulli finds it easy to match each student paper with the appropriate key.

The National Science Teachers Association puts out a Total Enrichment Calendar containing "365 days of teaching ideas." The calendar is published by Acropolis Books Ltd. (2400 17th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20009) and sells for $10, including mailing costs. Designed to be used year after year, the calendar has two big pages for each month. One describes ideas for projects, more or less science-related. For instance: "Bridges: Visit different bridges in the community, locate them on a map, calculate their lengths in kilometers, study their construction. Try to duplicate the bridges using straws, pins, cardboards, other materials."

The second page lists one or more events for each date, such as "Jan. 15: Robert E. Lee, general-in-chief of the Confederate Army, was born in 1807. . . . The first patent for a neon sign was awarded in 1915." The calendar is a great source for trivia buffs, which many children are.

Having trouble teaching about *simile* and *metaphor*? Doris Antonetz of Baker Junior High School in Corpus Christi, Texas, calls for figures of speech when she calls the roll. She forewarns her speech or writing classes that "when the roll is called tomorrow, each person should respond with an original simile describing. . . ." Knowing they'll be put to the test in full view of their classmates, the students make sure they understand the structure of the figure of speech called for. Asked to come up with similes describing *hot* and *cold,* they responded with such phrases as these: "cold as a doctor's stethoscope," "hot as a zipper right out of the dryer."

The same ploy with metaphors produced the following: "Parents are maps to guide you." "Parents are trampolines. They help you up but also catch you when you fall."

On the day the roll call assignment was for picturesque personifications, these were two of Mrs. Antonetz' rewards: "Sharpeners eat pencils." "Erasers devour words." □

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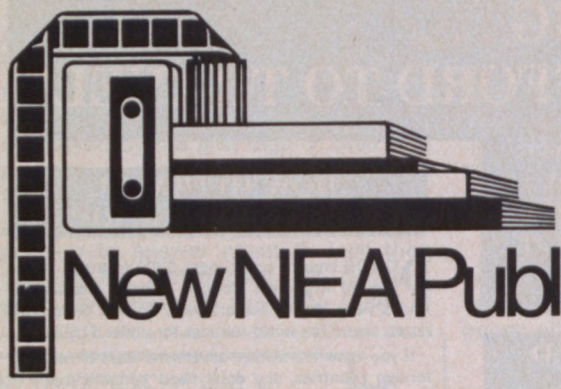

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Parenting. Kevin J. Swick and R. Eleanor Duff. A *What Research Says to the Teacher* report that discusses the following topics: The Changing Nature of Parenting, Parent Education, Parents and Teachers Learn Together, The Home and School. 33 pp. 1979. (1047-7-OF) 75¢.

Teachers for Excellence Can Save Our Children. Rev. Jesse Jackson. A one-hour address on cassette tape, originally presented at the 1978 NEA annual meeting in Dallas. A printed *Overview with Discussion Questions* accompanies the tape. NEA will contribute $1 to PUSH for each tape sold. 1978. (1622-X-OF) $8.

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Books

Classrooms and Corridors: The Crisis of Authority in Desegregated Secondary Schools, by **Mary Haywood Metz.** University of California Press. 286 pp. $12.95.

Sociologist Mary Haywood Metz spent the 1967-68 school year interviewing and observing at "Chauncey" and "Hamilton," two desegregated junior high schools in the medium-sized city of "Canton." In *Classrooms and Corridors: The Crisis of Authority in Desegregated Schools,* she describes how the traditional methods for maintaining order in American schools broke down there.

The book's subtitle appears to limit the application of Metz's conclusions to schools that are newly racially mixed. That is not the case. In fact, the author doesn't think that either the schools or the turbulent year in which she visited them were all that unusual. Rather, these particulars of time and place simply made more obvious the stresses and strains typical of all public secondary schools.

Metz delineates two general approaches that adults in schools have traditionally used to maintain their authority and keep order. She calls them the *institutionalization of innocence* and the *myth of coercive control.* The first is a method of keeping order among middle and upper-middle class children, who share the school's goals and trust adults. School staff members need only keep these children from realizing that rules can be broken. The approach depends, however, upon universal success because, the author notes, children who see significant numbers of other children breaking rules will decide that they can break rules too.

Not all students share the school's goals or trust adults to do what is best for them. To keep order among these kinds of students, administrators and teachers use the second method, the myth of coercive control. By using coercive sanctions or punishments, they prove to students that the school can respond to any provocations on their part. And because the students believe the school's threats of coercion, the school seldom has to carry them out. But the myth of coercive control is a myth, Metz warns, "for if the children test it with large-scale and prolonged disobedience, the coercive resources of the school will break under the load."

In the mid-1960's, several developments coincided in Canton that had the effect of reducing the schools' ability to use either of the traditional approaches. These were some of them:

- A judicial decision to limit the school's authority to regulate student dress undermined, in Metz's view, the school's claim to be an arbiter of manners and decorum.
- For different reasons, both Black and upper class White parents publicly pressured school officials to relax discipline.
- Desegregation brought together under the same school roof students from very different backgrounds who would not accept the same forms of control.

The result, Metz concludes, was that any attempt at control was abandoned. Rising disorder fed on itself as the range of possible misbehavior for students became ever larger.

Distinguishing explicitly between *authority* and *authoritarianism,* Metz believes that schools cannot pursue their teaching goals without simultaneously pursuing the goal of order. She knows, however, that order and learning coexist in tension—the conditions desirable for achieving one tend to overwhelm the other. Comparing Chauncey students, for example, with those at Hamilton, she noted that the former behaved better, but that their classes were dull. And it was at Chauncey, not at Hamilton, that students worried about "too much hate."

As to prescriptions, Metz says that schools in which innocence is still institutionalized should not question—or let their students question—the worth of what they are doing. Once schools have to convince students of the value of school, they must also shift time and energy from teaching students to motivating them to accept teaching.

But motivation must be teachers' major goal, Metz says, with students who have lost—or who never had—their "innocence" as students. And here is the paradox: It is precisely the flexible, open-ended activities that school people use to motivate such students that will further undermine the school's capacity to keep order. Such activities are not compatible with achieving an important goal of the traditional approaches to order—a sense among students that school is a place where things are inevitable.

I have concentrated in this review primarily on the highlights of Metz's conclusions about "corridors," i.e., about schoolwide policy on student behavior. She also, of course, looked at

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"classrooms," where she found some useful things to say about which kinds of teaching styles work best with today's skeptical students.

— Reviewed by **Nancy R. Needham,** *editorial associate*, Today's Education.

Growing Up American: Schooling and the Survival of Community by **Alan Peshkin.** The University of Chicago Press. 304 pp. $12.95.

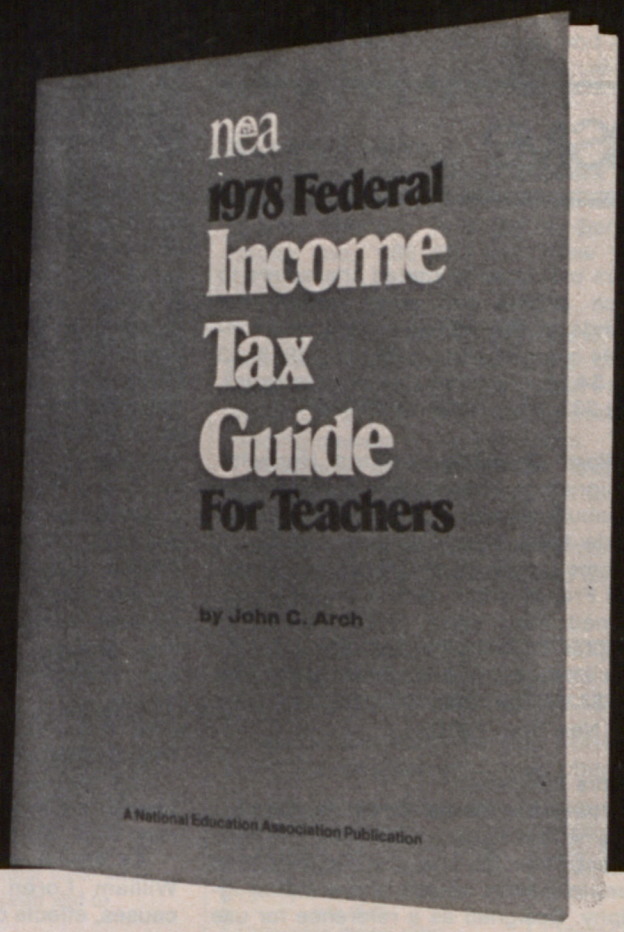
One day Alan Peshkin found himself out of far-world places to analyze as a professor of comparative education. What with the Bangladesh conflict ending his study of modern-traditional contrast in India, he came back home, rounded up new sources of funding, and went off to observe a homespun piece of America for a change. He chose an ordinary Midwestern small town, centered about a typical-to-the-place small high school.

Peshkin writes skillfully and interestingly. Still, the reader of this report of two years' observation in "Mansfield" may remain somewhat puzzled about the need for such a study. It does, however, offer understanding of rural problems to the city teacher, empathy to the country teacher, and pleasant nostalgia to old graduates. *Growing Up American* has a good news-bad news theme that has poignancy. The good news is the happy realization that the small rural high school, which is wholly congruent to its community's values and which acts as the pivotal point of community action, interests, and entertainment, does still exist in America. Peshkin acknowledges that only 2.3 percent of public school students in the United States are educated in schools the size of Mansfield's, but he points out their value as havens of reasonable security and peace for an adolescence without undue agony.

The bad news is, of course, that Mansfield is a member of an endangered species. It does not belong in the modern world and is doomed by the economic and academic demands for larger, more efficient, weaned-from-the-community schools. A town cannot forever fight consolidation to save the team.

Peshkin's dissertation is actually a eulogy at a pedagogic funeral. There is, however, a certain wistful joy in the familiarity and comfort of the life Peshkin reports, and there is enjoyment in the reading until the final ceremony begins.

Reviewed by **Jean Mizer Todhunter,** *Hailey, Idaho. Former guidance director of a rural school district which fought consolidation for 20 years.*



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Favorite Stories on Tape. Lists classic stories, for use in English and reading classes, that are available on tape with follow-along scripts. 1978. Catalog free. JimCin Recordings, P.O. Box 536, Portsmouth, RI 02871.

The following catalogs are available from Educational Record Sales, 157 Chambers St., New York 10007. Each lists more than 3,000 audiovisual aids and includes all subject areas. 1979. Free.

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University Press Books for Secondary School Libraries. Tenth edition. Annotated list of selected books for gifted students and those who have special assignments or have interests that require specialized materials. 1978. 87 pp. 25¢. American Assn. of School Librarians, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago 60611.

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Language Arts

The Alphabet Kids. Kathleen Burns Tompkins. Illustrated by Reppy Epstein. Designed for children three to seven years old. Uses animated characters to teach capital and small letters, the sounds of the alphabet, and the concepts of vowel and consonant. 1978. 23 pp. $4.95. Vermont Crossroads Press, Box 333, Waitsfield, VT 05673.

Word Detective. Edward Horowitz. Designed to help students enrich their vocabularies and prepare for verbal aptitude tests. Identifies and defines 75 common root words of Latin, Greek, and French origin, with example words formed from these roots. Includes a chapter on word stories with a collection of linguistic anecdotes. 1978. 182 pp. $4.95. Hart Pub. Co., Inc., 12 E. 12th St., New York 10003.

Media Education

Doing the Media. Edited by Kit Laybourne and Pauline Cianciolo. Portfolio of activities for studying the media of film, television, sound, and still photography. Designed as a reference for use in creating a program of media study. Elementary through senior high school. 1978. 212 pp. $6.95. McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1221 Ave. of the Americas, New York 10020.

Metric

The following publications are available from the American National Metric Council, 1625 Massachusetts Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20036. Payments must accompany orders under $10.

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Science

The following publications are available from the National Science Teachers Assn., 1742 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, DC 20009.

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Safety in the Secondary Science Classroom. Suggests practices that ensure a safe environment in all science-related activities. Includes special safety instructions to teachers and students in biology, chemistry, physics, and life physical science classes. 1978. 150 pp. $4. Stock No. 471-14752.

Science Career Exploration for Women. Walter S. Smith and Kala M. Stroup. Contains activities modules designed to help talented women students explore careers in science. Modules may be used separately or as a package. 1978. 80 pp. $2.50. Stock No. 471-14748.

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The following books are available from Franklin Watts, Inc., 730 5th Ave., New York 10019.

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Women's Studies

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The following books, by Ardis O. Higgins, are available from Halls of Ivy Press, 13050 Raymer St., North Hollywood, CA 91605. Each may be used for reading classes or as references.

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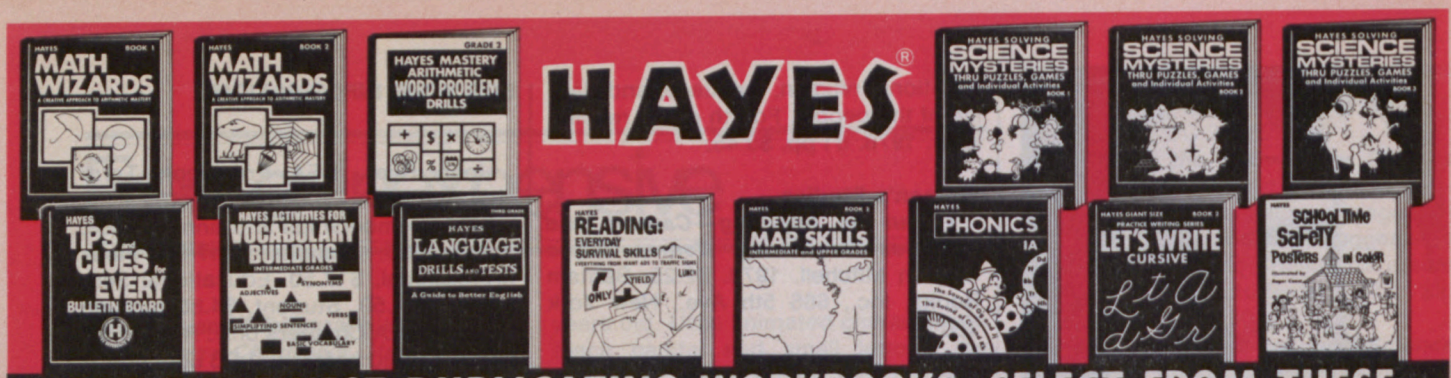

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Lack of discipline once again heads the list of major problems facing the nation's schools, according to the Tenth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools. Because teachers' concern with this problem has also been great, the April-May issue of *Today's Education* will carry a special feature on the L.E.A.S.T. approach to discipline, a method which has the enthusiastic support of users.

Teachers working with NEA's In-Service Education Project have identified four other products designed to approach this problem through in-service education. The teachers, who have used the materials, say that they offer clearly stated objectives, both breadth and specificity of content, logical sequencing of topics, good technical quality, means of assessing teacher learning, and an enjoyable learning experience. Most important, the teachers say the materials helped solve the specific problems they had chosen to address.

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The distributor is Panhandle Area Educational Cooperative. The booklet costs 75¢; one pretest and one posttest, 25¢.

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Media Five Films distributes the film. It sells for $375; rental is $40 a week.

Human Relations and School Discipline is a three-part package of 29-minute color/sound films. The films are subtitled "The OK Classroom," "Teacher Effectiveness Training," and "The Reality Therapy Approach." The four teachers who chose *Critical Moments* also selected these films for their in-service program. Their feeling was, "It made [us] think. It had lots of helpful ideas and was excellent material."

This set also comes from Media Five Films. Each film can be purchased for $395, or rented for $45 a week. Together the three films cost $1,000 and rent for $120 a week.

By using these validated products, and by sharing with others their in-service experiences, teachers can increase the range of skills the profession can use to discipline students more effectively.

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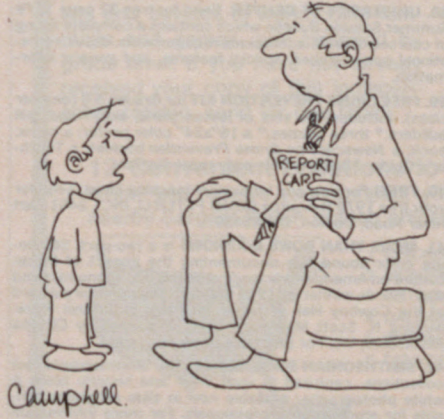
—Marija Futchs Fine, *In-Service Education Project, NEA Instruction and Professional Development.*



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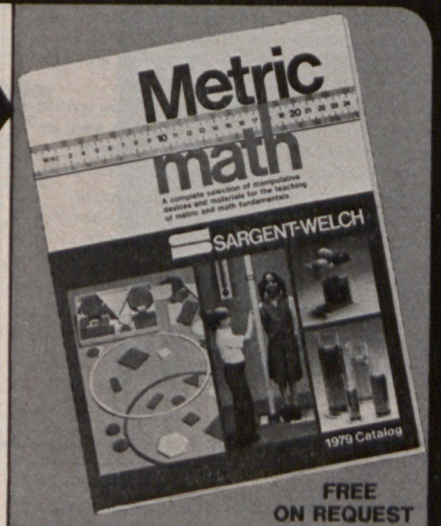

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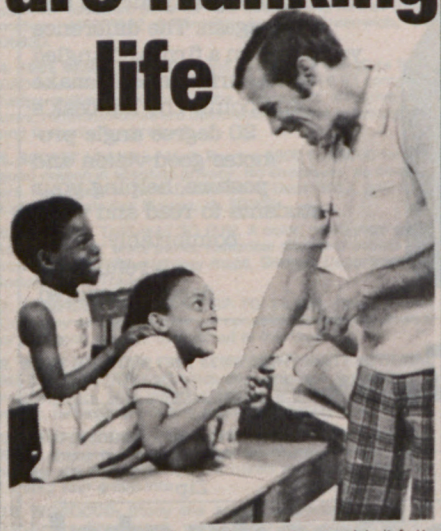

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6	16	26	36	46	56	66	76	86	96	106	116
7	17	27	37	47	57	67	77	87	97	107	117
8	18	28	38	48	58	68	78	88	98	108	118
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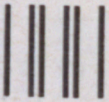

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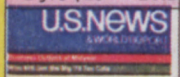

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